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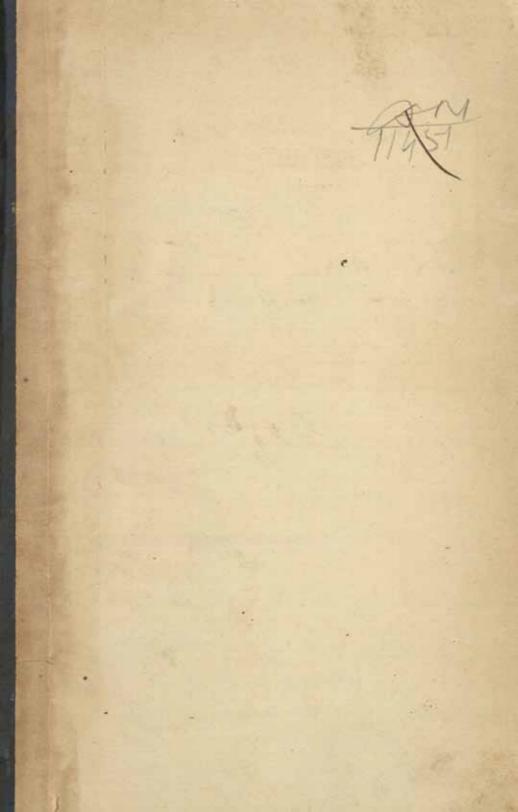
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XIV

NAM

AN ANCIENT LANGUAGE OF THE SINO-TIBETAN BORDERLAND

Text, with Introduction, Vocabulary and linguistic studies

by

F. W. THOMAS

12925

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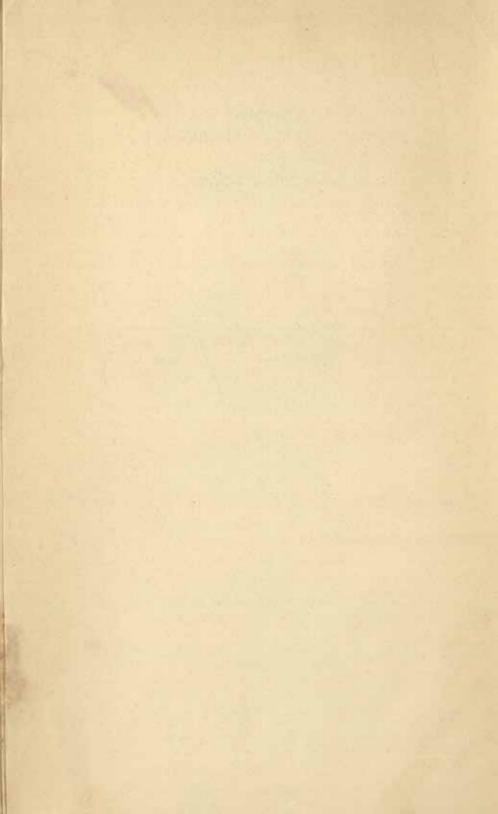
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To the memory of BRIAN HOUGHTON HODGSON founder of

Himalayan and Tibetan linguistics

495.1/Tho.



PREFACE

The existence of a Nam state came to light, in 1925, through mention of a king Hu-mar, whose daughter became consort of a Khotan ruler: see Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, vol. i. p. 130 and n. 5. In the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society for 1928 (pp. 630-4) note was taken of a Nam, or Nam-pa, kingdom and language and a Nam-tig people, as cited in certain early Tibetan manuscripts which had been brought by Sir Aurel Stein from the now famous walled-up library in Ch'ien-fo-tung (a monastery settlement near Tun-huang/Sha-chou in western Kansu) and which evidently contained folk-lore of the Koko-nor region of north-eastern 'Tibet'. On the basis of certain names quoted along with Tibetan equivalents it was concluded that the folk-tales were versions of Nam originals; and the language was identified with that of the text here edited, of which a specimen had been published. The matter was carried somewhat further, with discussion and attempts at elucidation of the language, in an article contributed to the JRAS, for 1939 (pp. 193-216).

A connexion of the Nam kingdom with the Nan (Nam)-shan range of mountains, which separate the Koko-nor region from the Chinese province of Kan-su, was naturally conjectured from the first; and confirmation may be sought in the name of a Sinified 'Nan-Liang' dynasty which at the end of the fourth century A.D. and during the early part of the fifth ruled the country from Hsi-ning to Lan-chou. The family name of the dynasty was T'u-fa, and its members are stated to have been of north-Asian, Sien-pi, extraction, akin to the Koko-nor T'u-yū-hun, with whose state it coexisted in a relation which is not perspicuous. On the Chinese side 'Nan-Liang' was evidently taken to mean 'Southern (Nan) Liang', as contrasting with the perhaps somewhat later Hou-Liang, 'Later Liang', Pei-Liang, 'Northern Liang', and Hsi-Liang, 'Western Liang', ruling over different parts of Kan-su. Thus the Nam-pa people may have been the people of the Nan-Liang state, and this may have owed its name to the Nan-shan mountains. But the Chinese nomenclature of outside cities and districts has frequently been found to be a deceptive covering of prior native designations; and it is conceivable that the Nan-shan itself was originally not 'Southern mountain', which

is not obviously appropriate, but 'Nam mountain' in a native sense. This is suggested by the familiarity of the word gnam, 'sky', and gnam-pa (in our present text hnam-hldah), 'sky-people', as denoting the inhabitants of Gnam, the higher Bon-po heaven. Thus the Nan-shan may have been at first the 'heaven mountains', and the Nan-Liang, properly the 'Nan(-shan)-Liang', may have set the fashion for the Chinese designations, Pei-Liang, Hsi-Liang, &c. One of the Tibetan manuscripts, which mentions a 'Nam-po' or 'Gnam-po' species of turquoise, also makes gnam 'sky' play a

part in the mythical origin of the stone.

Identification of the language of the text as 'Nam' was based upon a limited number of name-forms, and objection may be raised as follows: Granted that in the text the expression Mehiklu-hcah may, on the lines suggested infra (p. 255), carry a covert allusion to the Nam people as related to an eponymous Mye-kru, celebrated in the folk-lore manuscripts, does it not seem that these Mehi-klu-hcah are mentioned slightingly or even with hostility? Should not the text represent an external point of view, namely, that of the Hldvan associated with them, who could well be the Hian, i.e. the Tang-hsiang people, known from Tibetan history? In that case the language of the text might deserve to be named rather Hldvan, or Hjan, than Nam. To this it may be replied that the name Hjan, whether identical or not with Liang in Nam-Liang, &c., was probably dynastic, and that the country itself was known as Skyi. In fact, the folk-lore texts themselves give as Skyi, or Skyi-mthin, 'Skyi-plateau', the name of the 'far country' to which the daughter of Mye-kru escaped to become a bride in the local Gyim-po family, i.e. a racial ancestress. In all the tales it seems that the main theme is really the Skvi country legend and that the Nam occurrences are incidental, imported as accounts of that ancestry. Nevertheless, only a Nam original is mentioned, and it is therefore to be concluded that the Tibetan versions had only Nam originals, whether the legends were current only in a 'Nam' area, or whether between a 'Nam' and a 'Skyi', or Hjan', language there was no real difference. Substantially, in fact, the latter was, no doubt, the case. The Skvi kingdom was separated from the Nan-shan districts only by the Rmachu (Hoang-ho), which in early times did not constitute a barrier: the whole confused mass of the Ch'iang tribes of the region was swaved, as appears, by the 'Shao-t'ang' leaders to the north of it; and the subsequent detachment of a Skyi, or Tang-hsiang, state may have been merely a reaction from the domination of the intrusive T'u-yü-hun people in the vicinity of the Koko-nor.

For the study of the oldest-known Tibetan the Nam language, as we may accordingly continue to designate it, should, being approximately contemporary, furnish a not superfluous control. In relation to Ch'iang or other Tibeto-Burman dialects of the Sino-Tibetan borderlands, none of them recorded until centuries later or until modern times, it may serve to measure development. The contents also of the few texts, Nam and Tibetan, should help in divining the obscure mentality, traditions, and social conditions of the peoples. While the Nam text is not here accompanied by a continuous translation, the pieces of folk-lore in the Tibetan manuscripts, of which an edition with translation has been prepared, may be forthwith utilizable.

Increased familiarity with the text, which was ready in 1941 for the press, has strengthened the impression of artifices of style, such as are noted on p. 157: it has also given occasion for amplification, and, it is hoped, improvement, of the Vocabulary.

The latter, in common with the chapter on Etymology, to which it largely refers, has necessarily a tentative character; but it may perhaps be found to contain, along with, no doubt, numerous over-speculative or erroneous items, a proportion of additional confirmations and also material for the correction of its own errors. A reader attracted to the study of the language and its problems may prefer, however, to make an independent approach by first looking through the Text as printed, unless he should choose rather the facsimile Plates.

For the sketch-map, designed for reference in connexion with the present work, a historically and ethnographically instructive original could, but for technical difficulties, have been found in one included in M. Grenard's valuable Atlas, published (1898) in Mission Scientifique dans la Haute Asie, par J.-L. Dutreuil de Rhins. The Oxford University Press has graciously allowed the two compiled for Sir Charles Bell's The Religion of Tibet to be used as a basis. The fine geographical maps published by the Royal Geographical Society and the Trigonometrical Survey Department of the Government of India are replete with here irrelevant names of native or foreign origin. Readers may appreciate a reference to Dr. Tafel's map, accompanying his Meine Tibetreise, to the Chinese sketches for the Rgyal-ron statelets (see the cited publications of E. Colborne Baber and Dr. Haenisch), and to the Chinese

map of Kan-see published with an elaborate Index, by Dr. Filchner (infra, p. 25 and n. 4).

Certain inconstancies in the spelling of names, due to retention of general usage or of the use of quoted works, or to variation in the Tibetan writing itself, will, it is hoped, be excused as innocuous.

Grateful acknowledgement is due to the authorities of the India Office for continuous loan of the manuscript and permission of the publication, and to the now retired Librarian, Dr. H. N. Randle, and his assistants for constant help. For a liberal subvention towards the expense of printing, the Philological Society desires to record its cordial thanks to the Council of the British Academy. The skilled and rapid work of the Oxford University Press from the time when a commencement became possible has lightened the task of correcting the typographically rather complex proofs.

F. W. THOMAS

September 1947

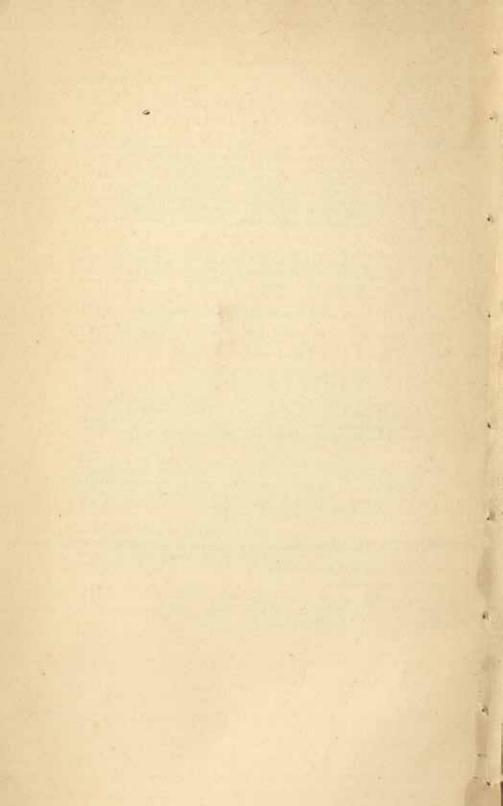
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ADDITIONS AND CORRECTIONS

- Pp. vi, 27, 31, 333: In identifying the Hjan with the Tang-hsiang it was suggested (JRAS, 1928, p. 85) that the name, so far as it is applied to the Mo-so, was brought by that people from the north. In its occurrences in the Tibetan Chronicle and the associated texts M. Jacques Bacot (Documents de Touen-houang . . . , 1940-1946) refers it to the Mo-so. Reserving some here irrelevant comments upon this matter, we should first note that the form Hldyan (Chinese Liang), which alone is here requisite, was certainly applied to the T'ang-chang dynasty.
- P. 8 n. 2: The Chinese account rendered by Dr. Haenisch (op. cit., p. 23) gives as boundaries of Khams, E. the Ya-lung river, W. the mountain 'Noubou-grangra', N. the northern boundary of the Hbri-chu (upper Yang-tse-chiang), S. the mountain 'Gakra-gangri'. The 'capital' was Batang (Hbaḥ-than).
- P. 28 and n. 4: Fussû-ch'êng is given in Professor Herrmann's Atlas, map 32.
- P. 31, Wei-chou: For a better-known Wei-chou, in the region of the Rgyal-ron and Mao-chou, see Rockhill in JRAS. 1891, p. 193 n., Tafel, op. cit. ii, p. 223, Haenisch, op. cit., p. 69.
- Pp. 59-60 n., Duńs: A place Stag-tshal in Duńs is mentioned in the Tibetan Chronicle (M. Bacot's edition, pp. 33, 44-6).
- P. 74: Add to the list of languages the Kioutse (d'Orléans, nos. 27, 29) or Kiu-tzū, occasionally cited infra (see p. 459). Belonging, like the Mélam and Loutse/Lu-tzū, to the Me-kong valley (see map), it seems to have been extensively Tibetanized, but retains some clear Hsi-fan features. The Kiu may be the Hjus of Geografia Tibeta, p. 42.
- Pp. 89 n. 2, 90, Dge-ŝi-tsha: The name of the small state (located in the map) is recorded in Tibetan writing (see Haenisch, op. cit., p. 98 n. 4) as Dge-bšes-rtsas. In the numerals cited infra (p. 90) 'awfa, given by Haenisch as = 20, should, no doubt, be '14', '4' being 'da (Hör-pa kla): '20' would resemble Hör-pa naskā, since '30', šu-sk'a, and '40', wa-sk'a, correspond to Hör-pa sūskā, lēskā.
- P. 154, Bo-lo-tse: The language of this people, the Polotseu of d'Ollone (p. 34), is warranted as Hsi-fan by a short list of numerals and other words reported by W. C. Haines Watson in the Journal of the China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, vol. xxxvi (1905), p. 101 ('Journey to Sungp'an').
- P. 333: For the sorcerer's cock, or fowl, see also Tafel, op. cit., II, p. 236.
- P. 430: In the Vocabulary insert hphyah, 1. 298, and read hpus-hphyah in p. 428.



INTRODUCTION

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A. GENERAL. GEOGRAPHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The great country which on the maps is labelled 'Tibet' extends, from Rudok in the west to Ta-chien-lu = Dar-chen-do in the east, over about 22 degrees of longitude, and, from the Himālaya in the south to the Kuen-lun and Altyn-Tagh in the north, over about 11 degrees of latitude. Owing to the inverse curvature of the great mountain ranges on the north and south it presents a rather oval contour. Somewhat more visually it may be compared to a left hand placed flat with palm downwards upon a board pointing eastwards with a slight declivity in that direction. The wrist will then be the region where Kuen-lun, Karakoram, and western Himālaya approach each other in the Ladak countries; and the back of the hand, with, say, half the length of the fingers, may represent the great 'north plain', Byan-than, which has its greatest general altitude in the north-west, where the Byan-chen-mo (Changchenmo) attains to about 17,000 feet; the whole western border is at a great height, so that it, and especially the Kailasa-Mānasa-sarovar area, is by the Tibetans designated Stod-phyogs, 'Upper Region', and the descents to the Low Country (Mar-yul) of Ladak are over passes reaching 19,000 feet.

The fingers will have to be more than four in number; they will have to be lengthened, to develop a curvature in a south-easterly direction, and to have branching ends. The curvature will be most pronounced in the prolongation of the little finger and forefinger, and least in the case of the longer middle finger. Hence there will seem to be, as it were, two groups: the prolongation of the little finger will, as the Nan-shan of the Chinese border, seem to wish to approach the prolongation of the middle finger, the great Bayan-kara¹ range of mountains, and to allow the river which the Tibetans call Rma-chu, 'Peacock River',² only a rather contracted exit into

¹ Mongol bayan, 'rich', +kara, 'black' (Prejevalsky, ii, p. 181; Tafel, ii,

p. 257 n., with a plea for the retention of the name).

The name, in Hsi-hsia ma-δuo (Laufer, No. 109), must have been obtained by the Tibetans from the Tang-hsiang people, concerning whom see infra (p. 28). The peacock bird (Tib. rma-bya), traditional ancestress of the Tang-hsiang (infra, pp. 28–9, 135), who bore the designation Rma as a national and regional surname (Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, i,

China, where it becomes the Hoang-ho; while the continuations of the forefinger will take a decidedly southern direction, until. in a braid of high ranges, they collide with the most easterly prolongations of the thumb, namely the Himālaya.1 Between the two groups, and receiving great tributaries from the southern flanks of the Bayankara, lies the course of that river which of all those descending from the Tibetan plateau into China has its sources farthest to the west, namely the Hbri-chu (Di-chu, Drechu, i.e. 'Yak-cow River') of the Tibetans,2 or, as it approaches China, the Chin-sha-chiang ('Gold-sand River') or, in China, the Yang-tse-chiang. The forefinger, which bounds the course of the upper Hbri-chu on the south, is a great area of snow mountains wherein is distinguished on the north the Tang-la, of which the western continuation is not definitely known, but which to the travellers coming from the north presents the most imposing spectacle that they have encountered.3 More to the south, and extending eastwards between the Tengri-Nor (Nam-tsho) lake and Lha-sa, is the Gnan-chen-Than-la,4 the Nyin-chen-Tangla of

p. 279, n. 6, ii, p. 20), is commemorated also in the name of the great Amne-Machin (*Rma-chen*) range of mountains, round which the river flows.

The Chinese notion, reported by Rockhill (Diary, p. 113 n.), that rma means 'yellow' is an imagination based upon the Chinese Huang-ho, 'Yellow River'. According to Hua and Gabet (i, p. 274) the water of the river begins to be yellow only after its entry into China; but Dr. Tafel (ii, p. 290, with an erroneous etymology) finds it 'yellow-gray' as high up as its knee.

It is, of course, conceivable that rma originally meant 'river' and that the connexion with 'peacock' is due to folk-etymology; but evidence is wanting, unless Loutse rê-mê should prove to be such.

¹ For a general view of the ranges and their curvatures see M. Grenard's

discussion in Dutreuil de Rhins, La Haute Asie, iii, pp. 156 sqq.

The other spellings, Brius (Marco Polo), Polei-tchou (Huc and Gabet, ii, p. 119, evidently heard from a Chinaman), Di-chu (Prejevalsky, ii, pp. 221, 306), Drich'u (Rockhill, p. 196, n. 2), Bri-chu, all represent the Tibetan word hbri, 'yak-cow', with its ancient (bri) or modern (dri, di) pronunciation: the N'jeh which Gill heard at Ba-than (The River of Golden Sand, ed. Baber, 1883, p. 44) is merely the modern E.-Tibetan pronunciation of hbri: see p. 76. On the Mongol name, Muru (or Murus)-ussu, see Prejevalsky, Rockhill (whose objections in regard to hbri are unavailing), locc. citt., and Tafel, ii, p. 28 n.

See Hue and Gabet, ii, pp. 126-8; Rockhill, Diary, p. 215 ('certainly the most imposing chain of mountains I have seen in Asia'). The name, which Rockhill gives (p. 214) as = Tib. grans ('cold', 'icy'), is given in the Dictionary of S. C. Das as Dan-la and by the Panchen whose itinerary is mentioned infra as Ldan-la, in which Idan is ambiguous and la='moun-

tain pass' or, metonymously, 'high mountain'.

4 Gnan-chen-Than-lha (the spelling of the Geografia Tibeta, p. 2) means

maps, perhaps belonging in some way to the 'Trans-Himālaya'.

The gap between forefinger and thumb will be the valley of the Brahmaputra.

Crossing the Byan-than in an approximately west-to-east direction are numerous mountain ranges, which owing to the great general elevation of the plateau do not tower excessively:1 the Littledales, whose journey from Cer-cen and the Tokuz-Dawan was in a north-south direction and traversed the Byan-than farther to the west than the corresponding lines followed by other explorers, except Dutreuil de Rhins, found it always possible to discover a gap or a manageable pass. The broad depressions between the ranges are occupied not by rivers, but by chains of lakes, which, having no outlet, are saline; in the whole of the Byan-than, as far east as the main routes from Lha-sa to the north and northwest, the chief obstacle to travel is the scarcity of drinkable water. As the general level declines eastwards without a corresponding reduction in the heights of the great mountain ranges,2 the deepening depressions become the valleys of rivers, which in some cases, after descending from their parent glaciers, have over immense distances a quite moderate fall. The most familiar example of this is, of course, the Brahmaputra; but both the Hbri-chu and the Rma-chu traverse vast stretches of than country in this manner; and on a smaller scale some of the rivers embraced by the Hbri-chu and its southern barrier, the Tang-la-for instance the Dza-chu, or upper Me-kong-may exhibit the same feature; and certainly in the Koko-nor region the Tao-river has a long than course from west to east between mountain ranges before making at Min-chou a right-angle bend which ultimately brings it through a deep trough to the Rma-chu, somewhat west of Lan-chou. The great Na(g)-chu, or Ya-lung river, which with its tributaries issues from the southern slopes of the Bayankara range and ultimately

^{&#}x27;Great Ovis Hodgsoni Steppe-god' (lha perhaps an error for la, 'pass'). That gñan means Ovis Ammoni is stated by Hodgson himself (Miscellaneous Essays, ii, p. 173), who translates 'Pass of (to and from) the plains of the Great Nyen or Ovis Ammon', with the (preferable) alternative 'Great Ammon pass of the plains'. According to the Dictionary, however, and to Sandberg (Tibet and the Tibetans, p. 297) gňan, rňan, is Ovis Hodgsoni (not Ammoni): Prejevalsky gives (ii, p. 137) the word, in its 'Tangut' form, rkhiang, as denoting the Argal.

¹ 'The further west the lower the mountains' (Tafel, ii, p. 33).

^{* &#}x27;The valleys descend from W. to E. quicker than the mountain heights' (Dutreuil de Rhins, ii, p. 180).

joins the Hbri-chu, now Chin-sha-chiang, on its left bank, has

perhaps a more precipitous upper course.

There comes a point when the river either bends round the end of one of its mountain barriers or breaks through it,1 or is confined by the approach of two ranges, and so enters a gorge from which it emerges with much diminished altitude. This characteristic, manifested in the west by the Indus, which after a long course through Ladak and Baltistan at a height of 10,500-8,000 feet accomplishes in the 60 miles of its gorge ending in Kohistan a fall of about 4,000 feet, and similarly by the Brahmaputra just prior to its emergence in Assam, may in the case of the Hbri-chu and Rma-chu be indicated by figures. The former, which, where crossed by the main route over the Tang-la northwards, has an elevation of 13,000 feet,2 reaches the district of Jyekundo after a winding course through about 4 degrees of longitude and 11 of latitude with a height of about 12,000 feet; thence through gorge country it traverses about 2 degrees of longitude and 3 of latitude to the vicinity of Ba-t'ang on the great route from Lha-sa to Pe-king, losing 4,000 feet of height.3 The Rma-chu, after its short uppermost course, passes through the two lakes, Charing-nor and Oring-nor,4 at an elevation of about 14,000 feet; with many windings at the foot of the great Amne Rma-chen⁵ range of

¹ Cf. Tafel, ii, p. 169 (the Hbri-chu).

Rockhill, p. 380; Filchner, Om Mani Padme Hum, p. 168, 4,670 metres. Dr. Tafel's crossing, some distance north of Jyekundo, was at 3,650 metres (ii. p. 134).

Ba-t'ang (Ba-than) is about 8,200 ft. above sea-level (Rockhill, Diary,

⁴ As the correct spelling of these names Rockhill gives (p. 173, n. 1) Ts'aring and Noring with Tibetan etymology accordingly. Grenard has (iii, p. 206) Kya-ring and Ngo-ring. Tafel follows (ii, p. 15, n. 2) Rockhill, stating, however, that the names are Mongol, and adding, however, a reference to a text which gives Tibetan etymologies partly identical with those of Rockhill but with spellings Ts o-schdyara and Ts o-ngora: he further cites S. C. Das's spelling of the name Ts' aring as Skya-rens. S. C. Das in his Dictionary states that Skya-ren is the name of a lake which is the source of the Yang-tse-chiang. No doubt the really correct spelling is that of the Geografia Tibeta (p. 2), viz. Skya-rens and Sno-rans (rens?).

Grenard denies that the river actually passes through the two lakes, which he says are saline, and separates it by a range of hills. Possibly this question is not settled by Dr. Filchner's narrative (Das Rätsel des Matschü, pp. 95 sqq.) or by the modern maps.

In the name Amne, Amyé, Anyei (no doubt=Tib. 'a-ne) signifies, according to Prejevalsky (ii, p. 76), Rockhill (p. 94, Diary, p. 130) and the Vicomte d'Ollone (In Forbidden China, p. 256), 'ancestor'; and the two mountains, in the course of which it passes through about 5 degrees of longitude and about $1\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of latitude, it reaches its knee in a wide than at about 11,200 feet; then, curving round the Amne Rma-chen, it enters its gorge and in a sort of semicircle through less than 3 degrees of latitude reaches Kuei-tê, south-east of the Koko-nor (lat. c. $101-50^{\circ}$), where it is flowing at 7,500 feet; thence, with regular fall through about $2\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of longitude, it enters China proper at Lan-chou with a height of 5,400 feet.

The above particulars may enable us to appreciate the Tibetan conception of their country as consisting of than, i.e. high plateaux, or plains, and wide valleys of similar aspect, ron, gorges or defiles among mountains, with, of course, the sgan, the mountain ridges themselves. Eastern and northern 'Tibet', Mdo-Khams, is described as the country of the three Sgans. The passes over the mountains are la. But we may make mention of some further useful expressions.

Where there are mountain slopes and higher parts of valleys unsuitable for settlements, but allowing of nomadic pasturage, those districts are known as hbrog, and the nomads, tent-dwellers, are hbrog-pa (Dokpa). In many of the rons of eastern Tibet there are upper, barren, parts of the valleys, where the life is thus quite different from that of not very distant settlements. The word yog, a variant of hog, 'below', seems to have in general a rather wider sense than ron, denoting a valley without implying

first-named travellers give lists of the thirteen or fourteen so surnamed mountains of north-eastern Tibet. A later writer, Dr. W. Filchner, adds (Das Rätsel des Matschü, p. 167 n.) that primarily the term denotes certain 'mountain spirits'. In connecting Machen with the name of the river Rma-chu the Vicomte d'Ollone is indubitably right; but, as pointed out supra (p. 1, n. 2), Rma-chen means 'Great Peacock', and the Geografia Tibeta gives the name of the range as Rma-chen-sbom-ra, 'Great Peacock vast region', Prejevalsky's Amnimanchenponra, which Rockhill (loc. cit.) found 'horrible'. The Dictionary of S. C. Das clinches the matter by interpreting the expression as: 'name of the great genius of the gshi-bdag (ground-lord) class, the lord of the peacocks, who resides in the snowy mountain of Spom-ra of the province of Amdo.'

For a view see Tafel, ii, Plate LXVI.

pp. 13-20,

4 Geografia Tibeta, p. 41, adding three subsidiary ones. An old Bon-powork (MS.) enumerates four.

² See Rockhill (*Druk-pa*), pp. 189-90, *Diary*, p. 243, and, more generally, Sandberg, pp. 15–17.

Concerning the figures for Kuei-tê and Lan-chou see Rockhill, p. 376,
 Diary, p. 387.
 On than, ron, sgan, hbrog, see Sandberg, Tibet and the Tibetans,

the features of a 'gorge' or 'defile'. Mdo is the lower part of a valley where it opens out, and in its application to Amdo or Mdosmad, denoting the Koko-nor region generally, the term seems to mean no more than 'low country'. Sods are flat districts, where the high mountains end: we hear of the 'Eighteen Sods' of Mdo-Khams.

It is curious to note that the great difference in fertility between the northern and southern flanks of mountains in Tibet (see the remarks in Futterer, Durch Asien, i, p. 430, and Tafel, Meine Tibetreise, ii, p. 170) is represented by the Tibetans as a difference between 'bright' (gdags) and 'shadowed' (sribs) mountains and is commemorated in the names of two of the early legendary kings, Gdags- and Sribs-khri.

Naturally Tibet has ron districts in more than one direction, not indeed on the north, where the passages into Chinese Turkestan and the Lob-nor region, over the Kuen-lun and Altvn-tagh, are for the most part arid and those few rivers which rise beyond the first ranges have a course over barren thans and descend through treeless defiles into deserts of stony soil or sand. On the south, of course, there are many rons, and Sikkim derives its Tibetan name from being of that nature. But the ron country par excellence is in the east, where the many great rivers, taking approximately parallel courses from north to south, are separated by high, relatively narrow, sgans. As readers of Fathers Huc and Gabet's famous work will realize, and as appears at least equally from the published itineraries, Chinese and Nepalese,2 of the grand route from Lha-sa to Pe-king, which, after a slightly northerly detour to Chamdo on the Dza-chu, follows approximately the 30th parallel of latitude, the journey via Ba-than and Li-than to Ta-chien-lu is one of perpetual ascents to passes and descents from the same.

Glin-khams.

² A Chinese itinerary was translated into Russian by Father Hyacinth Bichurin, whose work was rendered into French, with notes, by Klaproth (Description du Tibet, Paris, 1831, Chéng-tu to Lhasa, pp. 171–237): Rockhill's translation, accompanied by other itineraries, appeared in the JRAS. 1891, pp. 27–69. The Nepalese itinerary was presented to B. H. Hodgson in 1843 and by him published in Selections from the Records of Bengal, No. IV, and again in Miscellaneous Essays, 1880, ii, pp. 167–90. Historically the most interesting itinerary, requiring, however, further elucidation, is that translated from the T'ang Annals by Bushell (JRAS. 1880, pp. 538–41)—from Hsi-ning to Lha-sa and Tashilhunpo (?): it evidently belongs to the 8th century A.D.

² Geografia Tibeta, pp. 44–5, Hbab[-than].

Somewhat farther north, but south of the Tang-la, the routes followed by Rockhill in 1891, Captain Bower, and M. Bonvalot and Prince Henri d'Orléans2 tell the same tale; and the prior route of Rockhill (1889), which in a south-easterly direction from Jyekundo followed for awhile the line of the Hbri-chu, diverged to the Dza-chu and again to places on the upper Na(g)-chu or Yalung, and then headed direct to Ta-chien-lu, reckons its passes at the rate of at least one per day. A partly equivalent route was

taken by Dr. Tafel in 1914.

It was observed by M. Grenards that, despite the general fall of the country towards the east, the mountain altitudes in eastern and north-eastern 'Tibet' are not appreciably less imposing than those of the west. Putting aside the fancy reported by Dr. Filchner,4 that in the Amne Rma-chen there are peaks comparable in height to Mt. Everest, we may note that the latest Government of India map of Tibet puts one part of that range on the 24,000-ft. level; the Nan-shan rises to 20,000 feet; and in the valley of the Chin-ch'uan river, which has a more or less north-to-south course rather to the east of Ta-chien-lu, Dr. Tafel records ranges to the east attaining to 5,000 metres, in two instances over 6,000, whereas the Tibetan side was content with somewhat over 4,000. It is clear that travelling in eastern Tibet is a much more toilsome matter than farther west; but, on the other hand, as has been recorded by both Rockhill and Dr. Tafel, the rons are often well wooded,6 and even rather thickly populated,7 with permanent towns and villages at the crossing-places, sometimes having houses of several stories and towers, climbing the steep declivities; whereas in the west the passes come at longer intervals and are more gradual. Prejevalsky, for instance, speaks (ii, p. 221, cf. p. 181) rather slightingly of his traversing the Bayankara at

* Across Tibet, 2 vols., London, 1891.

Diary of a Journey across Tibet, Calcutta and London, 1893—4.

³ Op. cit., iii, pp. 180-1; also by Dr. Tafel, ii, pp. 196, 277. ⁶ ii, pp. 196, 200, 248, 277.

⁴ Om Mani Padme Hum, p. 70. 6 Rockhill, Index s.v. 'Forests'; Tafel, ii, pp. 172, 188-9, 196, &c. Similarly Gill and others.

Rockhill, pp.196, 239, 242, Diary, pp. 262, 297, 328; Tafel, ii, pp. 185, 241. Gill, The River of Golden Sand, ii, p. 136; Rockhill, Diary, pp. 315, 323, 353, 365-6; Tafel, ii, pp. 175, 239, 243. The towers, a characteristic and perhaps ancient feature of the Hsi-fan countries, may be seen illustrated in Johnston, From Peking to Mandalay, p. 170; Fergusson, Adventure, &c., on the Tibetan Steppes, (facing) pp. 74, 194; d'Ollone, p. 208; Tafel, ii, Plates L, LV, LVII; Stötzner, Ina unerforschte Tibet, pp. 160, 181.

Odontala; and the chief difficulties are the fierce winds on the swampy thans and the impossibility of obtaining supplies of any kind, except in a few places where the crossing of an unfordable river, or some other special circumstance, has given birth to a permanent settlement.

All travellers from the north, however, from Fathers Huc and Gabet onwards, speak with respect of the Tang-la. And this is important; for it is certain that this is the northern boundary, both ethnical and political, of Tibet proper.1 In the centre and east of Tibet the highest general level seems to be that of the country immediately to the south of the Tang-la. To the Tibetans their country is the high country, culminating in the Stod-phyogs, the region of Mt. Ti-se (Kailāsa) and Lake Mānasa-sarovar. The area north-east of the Tang-la is regarded as a lowland, and either the whole of it, or at any rate the Koko-nor area, was in old times designated Mdo-smad, 'Low Mdo'; at present the terms used are Amdo and Mdo-Khams. The latter two names are somewhat loosely used. The term Khams, which, as we have seen, includes the valley of the Hbri-chu as far west as the Tang-La pass, is sometimes applied to the districts of eastern and even north-eastern Tibet in general; but it may be doubted whether the Tibetans ever think of the Koko-nor region or the Go-lok country to its south as Khams. It may be most convenient to restrict the term Khams to the country south of the Bayankara range, and to attribute the entire area to the north thereof, including the whole of the Rma-chu valley and the Koko-nor region, to Amdo (i.e. Mdo).2

¹ Hue and Gabet, ii, pp. 126-8; Rockhill, Diary, pp. 158, 214, 219 n.: see also infra, p. 13.

² The expression 'Mdo-Khams' is used in the Geografia Tibeta, pp. 3, 41, and is given in S. C. Das's Dictionary, s.v. Mdo. Khams does not seem to include any territory north of the Bayankara; and in the Koko-nor region the traders thence (Kham-pas, Rockhill, pp. 111, 188) are regarded as outsiders. Its westward extension is indicated by the Pan-chen's itinerary (infra, p. 13). Dr. Tafel defines (ii, p. 29 n.) Khams as the country between Lha-sa and the districts under Ssū-ch'uan-Chinese rule; but, unless for Lha-sa we substitute 'Tibet proper', that definition would be too comprehensive. Rockhill (pp. 61, 188) defines Khams as eastern Tibet. On the country and people see Sandberg, Tibet and the Tibetans, pp. 154–8.

According to the Pan-chen's itinerary Amdo is a rather limited area, centring upon Tankar and Kum-bum; and this is partly in agreement with Rockhill, who states (p. 73) that 'the section of country within the Kan-su border inhabited by Tibetans is known to them as Amdo, hence the name they give to themselves, Amdo-wa. . . . To the west of the Amdo-wa, living

Amdo, as so defined, being the main sphere of the present investigation, may be here briefly particularized.

The Bayankara range in the extreme east, where it reaches the north-western corner of the Chinese province of Ssu-ch'uan, is separated on its north by than country from the snowy Min-shan; from the Min-shan issues the Min river, which, flowing southwards by Sung-p'an and the capital, Chêng-tu, of Ssǔ-ch'uan, ultimately reaches the Yang-tse-chiang. Along the northern front of the Min-shan flows, in a west-east direction, the upper T'ao river; and farther north, bounded on the west by the Rma-chu gorge (Rmaron) and on the north by the subsequent west-to-east course of the same river, in the Koko-nor region, is mainly than country, having an elevation of from 12,000 to 13,000 feet, but crossed by some mountain ranges rising to 14,500 feet; through this country one or two rivers flow west into the Rma-ron, and a larger number descend northwards.1 From this than country there is easy access, by way of the than districts about the knee of the Rma-chu, to the whole upper valley of that river; but also, at one point, at least, in the Rma-ron,2 there is a crossing, whence a mountain route effects a much shorter approach to one or two points in that upper valley.

From the knee westwards the northern watershed of the Rmachu is the Amne Rmachen range of mountains, having a more or less north-west to south-east direction. At its western end it is separated by one or two parallel, but less considerable, ranges, Wahong-shan, Amne Bayan, &c., from the low country to the south and south-west of the Koko-nor; and these same ranges by their north-western projection, approaching the mountains of the south Koko-nor range, narrow the watershed between the Koko-nor region proper and the low-lying (9,000–10,000 ft.) districts (Baron, Jun, Taichinar, Hajjar, Gass, &c.) of the great salt-morass of the Tsaidam. These districts, lining the Tsaidam on the south, are backed by a succession of ranges, Burkhan Buddha range, Marco Polo range, Bokalik range, Chimen-tāgh, which separate them from the Tibetan plateau, Byan-than, and ultimately effect

in the steppe or the mountains round the Koko-nor, are the Panak'a or Panak'a sum, "the three Pana tribes", who, save in their more complete independence, differ in nothing from their neighbours."

On this country and the altitudes it will be sufficient to refer generally to Futterer, Durch Asien, i, pp. 329-441; d'Ollone, In Forbidden China (= Les derniers Barbares), pp. 225-81; Tafel, ii, pp. 275-321.

See Filchner, Das Rätsel des Matschü, pp. 260-1, and route-map.

a junction with the high barren Altyn-tagh, the southern barrier of Chinese Turkestan and the Lob-nor region.

Concerning the Altyn-tagh, which bounds the Tsaidam on the north and north-west, we need note only that in the angle where it adjoins the Nan-shan is the most northerly part of the Tsaidam, the Sirtin district, whence an ancient route from the Tsaidam and Koko-nor areas crosses the mountains, descending by the valley of the Tang-ho to Nan-hu and Sha-chou (Tun-huang), in Chinese western Kan-su.

As a glance at the map will show, the great Nan-shan, extending with various subordinate partitions in a more or less southeasterly direction to Lan-chou on the Rma-chu (now Hoang-ho). has rivers flowing in long troughs in opposite directions, and at their highest points overlapping. The Su-lo-ho, flowing northwest, reaches western Kan-su, and, becoming the Bulungir, ends in the desert. The Pei-ta-ho and the Kan-chou river, taking at first opposite directions, descend eastwards to Su-chou and Kan-chou respectively, and after their union end, as the Etsin-gol, in the Gobi desert. Farther south the Charin-gol (P'ing-fan river) has a rather long valley, which reaches the Rma-chu not far west of Lan-chou. But historically the most important of the rivers is on the Tibetan side of the Nan-shan; this is the Ta-t'ung-ho, which in its highest reaches almost touches the sources of the Su-lo-ho, and which in a very long trough, dividing the Nan-shan from the North Koko-nor range of mountains, joins the Hoang-ho one or two days' journey west of Lan-chou; at no great distance from its mouth it has received, on its right bank, the Hsi-ning-ho, which has passed by the ancient town of Hsi-ning, to the east of the Koko-nor.

The Koko-nor itself, at an elevation of about 10,500 feet, has on its east the valley of the Hsi-ning river and other valleys with a north-west to south-east direction; it is embraced by the North and South Koko-nor ranges, which, however, leave on the shores of the lake, especially to its west, some rather extensive pasturage, famous in both ancient and modern times; the combined prolongation of the two ranges constitutes the north-eastern boundary of the Tsaidam, and extends, more or less, to the above-mentioned Sirtin district.

On this pasturage see Huc and Gabet, ii, p. 99; Prejevalsky, ii, pp. 144, 227; Tafel, ii, p. 81. A fuller description of the southern shore is to be seen in Futterer, op. cit. i, pp. 279 sqq.

TOPOGRAPHY

For the purposes of this study (ethnographic, linguistic, and historical) not much needs to be premised in the way of topography; indeed most of the modern names on the maps are, as regards ancient times, uninstructive or misleading. Mention has been made of Lha-sa, important as the capital of the great Tibetan Btsan-pos, no less than of their priestly successors; places on the grand route to Pe-king, namely the ancient Chamdo (Chab-mdo), on the upper Me-kong, then Ba-t'ang, near which the Hbri-chu is crossed, Li-t'ang, Ta-chien-lu, where is the Sino-Tibetan frontier, to which we may add Ya-chou, somewhat farther to the east, Kanzé1 on the Ya-lung river, or Na(g)-chu, perhaps the old capital of the 'Women's Kingdom'; Jyekundo not far from the beginning of the Hbri-chu gorge, a place not known to be ancient, but important as a junction of routes; farther west the Tang-la pass, leading to the crossing of the Hbri-chu and the great routes to the north. On the upper T'ao river are two places, Shin-se and T'ao-chou, which figure in the Sino-Tibetan wars;2 and on the lower south-north course of the same river are some places, Min-chou3 and Ti-tao-chou4 and others, attested in far earlier times;5 on the Ta-hsia river, which reaches the Hoang-ho some distance west of the T'ao, is Ho-chou,6 originally Ga-cu,7 an early centre of Buddhism, now of Islam. East of the Koko-nor lake is Hsi-ning,8 in Tibetan Zi-lin, a very ancient tribal centre and now the head-quarters of the Chinese local administration, subordinate to the Governor of the province of Hsin-chiang, the 'New Dominion', which includes the Koko-nor region, Kan-su, and Turkestan. Two short marches west of Hsi-ning is the Sino-Tibetan frontier town, Tankar, Tonkhor, Donkyr, Dungkor,

According to Rockhill, p. 242, = Tibetan Dkan-mdzes.

² In the manuscript *Chronicle*, Zin-eu and Tehu-eu: for views of the modern places so named see Futterer, i, pp. 404-14 (Shin-se), 433 (Tao-chou); Tafel, ii, Plates LXVII, LXIX (Tao-chou).

² Views in Futterer, i, Plate XXXIV, and p. 442.

⁴ Description in Tafel, i, p. 159. ⁵ See infra, p. 41, and reff.

Part view in Tafel, i, Plate XXXVI.

⁷ JRAS, 1927, p. 552 (for Ga-lu read Ga-cu), Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 87.

Niews in Tafel, i, Plates XLV, XLVI, L. Rockhill gives (p. 49) other, European, forms of the name, Sin-ju (Marco-Polo), Scilin, Scilingh, Silin, &c. (Orazio de la Penna). Cf. Prejevalsky (Yule), ii, pp. 300-1.

Various forms of the name in Ritter, Geographie, iv, p. 217; Richthofen, i, p. 260; Rockhill, p. 109. Views in Futterer, i, pp. 259-69, ii, p. 61;

Tafel, i, Plate XXXVIII.

Tang-keou-eul; and at about 20 miles south-west of Hsi-ning (Rockhill, p. 41) is Kum-bum, originally Hgo-boms, where is the famous group of Buddhist monasteries.2 Also near to Kum-bum was Tson-ka, Great and Little, known many centuries before3 it became, in A.D. 1355-7, the birthplace of the famous Buddhist reformer, Tson-kha-pa. When the history of the struggles between the Ch'iang, and later the Tibetans, and the Chinese becomes topographically clear, several other localities in this Koko-nor region will acquire definiteness. Specially to be noticed on the map4 is the subsidiary Great Wall, branching off south of Liang-chou in Kan-su, winding over the Nan-shan, crossing the Ta-t'ung-ho, and embracing Hsi-ning; after passing between Hsi-ning and Tankar⁵ it crosses the Hoang-ho and then curves round as far as the vicinity of Ho-chou.

In China proper two places, Sung-p'an, originally Sung-chou,6 on the Min river, and Mao-chou, in the north-west corner of Ssūch'uan, the old region of Shuh, have required mention. In Kan-su, east of Lan-chou and the line of the lower T'ao river, is the province of Lung-hsi, defined by the Lung mountains, which west of P'ing-liang stretch directly northwards towards Ning-hsia on the Hoang-ho; the Lung-hsi province, where are the head-waters of the Wei river, was the scene of most of the struggles between the Ch'iang and the Chinese during the centuries immediately preceding and following the beginning of the Christian era. From Lan-chou northwards, at the foot of the Nan-shan and passing successively through the ancient garrison towns of Liang-chou (Lem-cu, Wu-wei), Kan-chou (Chang-yih), Su-chou (Chiu-ch'uan),

See Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 87.

² Views in Rockhill, p. 57, Diary, p. 26; Tafel, i, Plates XLVI-XLIX: Filchner, Kumbum (1933), passim; Tsibikov, Buddist Palomnik u sviatun Tibeta, pp. 23, 30, 36.

JRAS. 1927, p. 552: mentioned also in the Tibetan manuscript Chron-

icle and in the 8th century inscriptions of Lha-sa.

4 Highlands of Tibet and Surrounding Regions, Dehra Dun (1937?).

⁴ Here noted by Huc and Gabet, i, p. 293; Rockhill, Diary, p. 94; in the Ta-t'ung-ho valley by Prejevalsky, ii, p. 73; in the Hsi-ning valley by Rockhill, p. 97. The inner line which passes by P'ing-fan and crosses the Hoangho near Hsin-ch'èng (about 30 miles west of Lan-chou) has been noted by Rockhill, p. 42, Diary, p. 60; and a portion may be seen in a photograph by Futterer, ii, p. 39. In a.D. 822 the Chinese envoy Yuan-ting saw to the north-west of the Lung-ch'uan valley, where the Huang river joins the Hoang-ho, 'the ancient fortifications of Koshu Han, of which there was still much remaining' (Bushell, JRAS, 1880, p. 519).

⁶ Bushell, JRAS, 1880, p. 534 (63): view in d'Ollone, p. 212; Tafel,

ii, Plate LXI.

and Tun-huang-Sha-chou, ran the Great Wall, defending against the desert tribes the highway to the Lob-nor region and Central Asia.

The really important topographical features of eastern and north-eastern Tibet are what on the map are designated 'main caravan routes'; some of them are probably ancient, and with the aid of the reports of modern explorers and geographers they may be understood.

POLITICAL AND ETHNOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS OF TIBET

In this study we are primarily interested only in the north-eastern and eastern regions of Great Tibet. But, as the facts are not usually recognized, it is necessary to premise some general observations concerning the country as a whole.

That the northern boundary of Tibet proper is the Tang-la is recognized by all travellers from the north;1 and the fact assumes for them a great practical importance, since it is only after passing the Tang-la that they meet with that determined official opposition which diverts them, either eastwards or westwards, from any further approach to Lha-sa. But we have more intimate evidence in the form of a diary2 of a journey by the Pan-chen Blo-bzan Dpal-ldan Ye-ses, of Tashilhunpo,3 who in A.D. 1779 travelled from Lha-sa to Pe-king via the Koko-nor region, Kan-su, and Inner Mongolia. As far as Nag-chu-kha,4 the first settlement south of the Tang-la, he is in Tibet proper, Bod: from that point until he reaches the borders of the Koko-nor region he is in Khams; then comes Upper Mongolia, Stod-Sog, so designated by reason of the Mongol tribes, 'Banners', occupying parts of the country east, west, and south-west of the Koko-nor, also the Tsaidam: when he comes to Tankar and Kum-bum he is in Amdo; and at Hsi-ning, the head-quarters of the Chinese administration of northeastern Tibet, he is in China, Rgya.

A glance at the map will show that far the greater area of 'Tibet' is north of the Tang-la. Lha-sa, the capital of Tibet

¹ See supra, p. 8. ² JASB. li (1882), pp. 43–52.

Tib. Bkra-sis-lhun-po, 'Blessedness (or Auspiciousness) in mass'.
Hue and Gabet's 'Na-Ptehu', 'the first Thibetian station' (ii, p. 131).
Cf. Rockhill, Diary, pp. 233 sqq.; Filehner, Om Mani Padme Hum, pp. 198 sqq.

Concerning these see the accounts cited infra, p. 23 and n. 1.

proper, is still more decidedly southern, since the distance separating it from the Tang-la is about twice as great as its distance from the Himālaya passes. Before the foundation of Lha-sa, in the first half of the seventh century A.D., the capital was by many days' journey still farther south, being at Yar-lun, a place almost on the border of Bhutan. In order to estimate the extent of the kingdom inherited by Sron-btsan Sgam-po, the first really historical Btsan-po, note may be taken of the following facts: The Kailasa region, the above-mentioned Stod-phyogs, was not included, because it was the territory of another kingdom, Zanżuń, which was acquired in the time of Sron-btsan Sgam-po himself,1 and had an entirely non-Tibetan, though Tibeto-Burman, speech.2 As for the 'Low Country' of Ladak and Baltistan, its conquest and Tibetanization probably do not date before the end of the seventh century A.D., and its earlier history is problematical. The Brahmaputra valley, on the other hand, must be reckoned among the ancestral territories; for it was from Nepal, which is approached by that route, that the king obtained the first of his two famous consorts, and it was through Nepal that the combined Chinese and Tibetan armies invaded northern India after the death of the great emperor Harsa in A.D. 646-7.3

Presumably the region of mountains and lakes north of the Brahmaputra, the district of Dok (Hbrog)-thol and, farther north, the district which for some unknown reason is called the Hor (Turk) Province, were also part of Sron-btsan Sgam-po's kingdom. The inhabitants are Tibetans, and their speech is rather normal Tibetan. But how far north into the actual Byan-than Tibetan authority and Tibetan race extended among the very sparse nomad population is a matter in regard to which we have no light. North of the Tang-la must certainly have been the people mentioned by the Chinese T'ang Annals under the name Yang-t'ung,4

¹ The Tibetan manuscript Chronicle attributes the event to a year corresponding to circa A.D. 644. For a reference to the same occurrence see Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 54. The dynastic name of the Zanżuń kings was Lig.

See JRAS, 1933, pp. 405-10.

² Of this event an account, translated from Chinese, was given by Pauthier in the Asiatic Journal for 1836 (July and August), reproduced by Prinsep in JASB. vi (1837), pp. 69 sqq., and subsequently in the Indian Antiquary, ix, p. 20: with much additional information the matter was treated by Lévi in the Journal Asiatique, IX. xv (1900), pp. 279 sqq.

See Bushell, p. 527 (9).

which seems to be only a representation of Byan-than. According to the Chinesel this people occupied the plateau south of Khotan, being divided into Lesser and Greater. The latter are said to have had a country extending over 1,000 122 from east to west, with the Tibetans on their east. They first communicated with the Chinese in A.D. 641, and in the Annals some account of their climate, their numbers (from 80,000 to 90,000 fighting men), and manners is given. What proves that they extended as fareast as the Tang-la is that it was with their aid that Sron-btsan Sgam-po made his first expedition to the north to attack the Tu-yu-hun of the Koko-nor region; but they cannot have reached much farther east, since we have, as will appear infra, to find room for the Pai-lan. It is extremely unlikely that the Yang-t'ung were in a strict sense Tibetans; but possibly they were Ch'iang. The name Byan-than, even if used by the people themselves, is quite indecisive, since both its elements, byan, 'north', and than, 'plain', were current among the Ch'iang peoples.

The eastern boundary of Tibet proper is, likewise, somewhat indefinite. South of the Brahmaputra perhaps the most easterly district which is definitely Tibetan is Dwags-po, where the language, the 'Tákpa' of Hodgson,³ is a clearly Tibetan dialect. Farther east and south-east the Tibetans recognize, in the south-eastern corner of their country, only semi-human cannibal beings, Blo-bkra⁴ and others, to whom they were wont to send criminals to be eaten.

As far south as Ba-t'ang, on the 30th parallel of latitude, it seems probable that the valley of the Ḥbri-chu was the frontier of Sron-btsan Sgam-po's original kingdom. For, although the upper part of the next great river to the east, the Na(g)-chu or Ya-lung, is lined with states, Derge, Zog-chen, Hor-khog, &c., having at

Bushell, p. 527 (9) and p. 520 (73).

² The li varies between ½ and ½ of a mile, depending partly upon the time required by the route.

³ JASB. xxii (1853), pp. 142-51: the Linguistic Survey of India, t. ii, spells Tākpā.

⁴ The Lo-tawa ("karpo and "nakpo) of maps.

In the Geografia Tibeta, p. 47, the names of the states are given as Sde-dge, Rdzogs-chen, and Hor-khog, the last-named consisting of the five states Khan-gsar, Ma-zi, Brag-mgo, Be-ri, Tre-o. The places were visited by Rockhill (pp. 227-66) and Mrs. Rijnhart, With the Tibetans in Tent and Field, pp. 371 sqq., and later by Dr. Tafel (ii, pp. 168-96). Rockhill gives the names as Derge, Zochen, Horchyok; the 'five Horba clans', Horsé-k'a-nga (pp. 44 n., 242), being given as Kangsar, Mazur, Bérim, Chuwo, and

present Tibetan population and speech, there is reason for believing that in the seventh century A.D. that was not the case. In regard to the lower valley of the same river, the Na(g)-ron or Chan-tui, Rockhill remarks (The Land of the Lamas, p. 345) that:

'The tribes inhabiting along the lower course of the Nya-ch'u are called Män-nya-k'a or "inhabitants of the lower Nya-ch'u" and are the Meniak of Hodgson, the Menia of Baber.'

We must take some exception to the philology of Rockhill's statement; for a Mi-ñag man is mentioned in Tibetan company in an eighth-century document from Chinese Turkestan, and the name is otherwise also known in the old literature (*Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents*, i, p. 263, n. 1) and also in old Bon-po manuscripts.² Thus the real name of the river is $\tilde{N}ag$, and the modern $\tilde{N}a$ is only an example of the dropping of final consonants, which is characteristic of all the Tibetan and Tibeto-Burman dialects of the Chinese frontier.

The Mi-ñag language, as represented by Hodgson's lists, has many Tibetan affinities and apparently not a few borrowings; but it has also definite features which associate it with another group. For applying to the people the term Ch'iang we have no authority, and, considering their rather southern habitat, it might seem venturesome to do so; they had, however, neighbours who certainly belonged to that ethnic group.

This is the place for reference to the tribes occupying the vicinity of a river still farther to the east, the Chin-ch'uan, the 'Gold River', which, flowing from north to south, becomes the Yü-t'ung and crosses the 30th parallel somewhat to the east of

Change. Concerning the name-forms see infra, pp. 81-5. The chief town of Khan-gsar is Kanzé (Dkan-mdzes, Rockhill, p. 242 n. 1). For an older notice

see Baber (p. 95).

The word Hor has nothing to do with Hor, 'Turk', and according to Baber (p. 95 n.) it is differently pronounced. Very possibly the original single kingdom (Rockhill, p. 253 n.) is the Hor-man of an old Tibetan manuscript. Concerning the pleasing physiognomy of the people and the state of education among them see Rockhill, pp. 243, 245-6, and cf. Hodgson, pp. 138-9.

Royal Geographical Society Supplementary Papers, i, p. 95. Baber here points out that the Menia country extends some distance east of the Ya-

lung river.

2 Cf. the 'Ldon Me-nag' of Francke's Antiquities of Indian Tibet, ii,

pp. 65-6.

² This is, in fact, the spelling of the Geografia Tibeta, pp. 45–6, and it is still heard, being used by Amundsen in his travel narrative (Geographical Journal, 1900, i, p. 621).

⁴ JASB. xxii (1853), pp. 143 sqq.

Ta-chien-lu; afterwards, as the T'ung-ho, it falls into the Min near Kia-ting. The country has a Tibetan name, Rayal-mo-ron, 'Queen's (King's ?)1 gorge', and it is the 'Gyárúng' of Hodgson's vocabulary and the country of von Rosthorn's vocabularies (ZDMG, li (1897), pp. 524-33, with a sketch-map). Rockhill gives (op. cit., pp. 346-53) a Chinese administration list of the 'Thirty-three Yü-t'ung Hsi-fan tribes'. But more apposite are his lists of the 'Eighteen Kingdoms of Eastern Tibet', for which he had the authority of an official and of a Lama in Ta-chien-lu. In 1886 Baber had given (R. Geographical Society, Supplementary Papers, i, pp. 81-2) a list of the 'twelve Sifan tribes', which his sketch-map, even apart from the names, shows to be those of the Rgyal-ron. Parts of the country were traversed during the period 1903-7 by Mr. W. N. Fergusson, and again, in company with Lieutenant Brooke and Mr. Meares, in 1908 (see Fergusson, Adventure, dec.); but the fullest account of the country is given by Dr. Tafel in his Meine Tibetreise, vol. ii, pp. 212 sqq.

Concerning the names of these states we may refer to the discussion infra, pp. 81–5. It is remarked by Rockhill (p. 344) that one of the states, So-mo, is situated near Sung-p'an t'ing and is at present (1891) ruled by a woman; the So-mo district was visited by Lieutenant Brooke and his party (Fergusson, pp. 144 sqq., 173), and Dr. Tafel also had in 1914 an interview with the So-mo ruling lady. This peculiarity, which had previously been noted by Gill (The River of Golden Sand, p. 123) and which, we are told in the Later Han Annals, was not alien to Ch'iang ideas, has a

¹ The spelling Rgyal-mo-ron is given by the Geografia Tibeta (pp. 41, 46) and it is, perhaps, correct, since the *l* would have been lost both in the Lha-sa pronunciation and in the local speech; but the suffix mo does not necessarily in such a compound denote femininity.

Dr. Tafel's rDyarong (ii, p. 229) follows a pronunciation, but the rendering (p. 223) 'extensive or Chinese valley' would not be inevitable.

The Gyarung of the Linguistic Survey volume (1. ii) and Dr. Laufer's Jyarun, Dr. Wolfenden Jya-run, ignore the fact that the term is Tibetan.

It is, however, possible that the Rgyal(-ron) of the Geografia Tibeta is itself an etymologizing perversion of a non-Tibetan tribal name Gyar, now pronounced Jyar: this is suggested by the numerous place-names, Giyarlung, Giyartang, Giyardo, Giyaraa, Giyarmu, recorded in the Manchu report translated by Dr. Haenisch in Sir Swen Hedin's Southern Tibet, ix, pp. 67 sqq. In that case it may go back to the old tribal name Byar, concerning which see infra, p. 34. At present it seems reasonable to keep the spelling of the Geografia.

² Wylie, Revue de l'Extrême-Orient, ii, p. 476. Dr. Tafel mentions (ii, p. 291) even a Go-lok tribal queen.

considerable interest, because undoubtedly So-mo and, perhaps, all the states of the Rgyal-ron, were in earlier times part of the 'Women's Kingdom', famous in the Sui and T'ang Annals and in Chinese popular knowledge as $N\bar{u}\text{-}kuo$.¹ For a summary of the Chinese information, including an account of the dimensions and situation of the territory, of the political history of the state and the manners of the people, a reference may be made to Dr. Bushell's note in JRAS. 1880 (pp. 531–2) and to Rockhill, op. cit., pp. 339–41. The people were known to the Tibetans, who, however, are not informative, as Sum-pa, and individual Sum-pas are mentioned; elsewhere we have given text and translation of a collection of sayings, 'Sum-pa Mother's sayings', in Tibetan from an eighth-to-ninth-century manuscript.

The 'Women's Kingdom' was of considerable extent. There were over 40,000 families, 10,000 warriors. The eastern frontier stretched in an approximately north-south direction from Maochou (in the Sung-p'an region) to Ya-chou, somewhat east of Ta-chien-lu.³ From east to west was 9 days' journey, from north to south 20 days. The state included over 80 'cities', large and small. The people were scattered in mountain valleys.

Upon this information we may incline to the belief that the kingdom extended westward as far as the upper Na(g)-chu, and that its capital, in 'the Kang-yen valley, a narrow, precipitous gorge, around which flows the Jô⁴ river in a southerly direction', was in fact Kanzé on the Na(g)-chu, which Rockhill visited (op. cit., pp. 239 sqq.)⁵ This kingdom must have been the northern neighbour of the Mi-nag.

It seems possible that this original westward extension of the 'Women's Kingdom' may explain a peculiarity of Rockhill's two lists in comparison with the other versions. Rockhill speaks of the 'Eighteen tribes of the Nya-rong'; and in fact a number of the names in his versions are names of Hor-pa principalities of the

¹ This fact was 'suspected' by Mr. Edgar, The Marches of the Mantze, p. 64.

² Probably as Ldon-Sum-pa (in a Bon-po manuscript work), = the Gton-gsum-pa of Francke, Antiquities of Indian Tibet, ii, pp. 65-6. According to the Chinese Su-pi (= Sum-pa) was the queen's family name.

³ It is interesting to read (Edgar, op. cit., p. 61) that 'politically and ecclesiastically' the boundary between Chinese dominion and semi-independent Tibet is here practically, though not theoretically, still along the same line.

⁴ Bushell, Je.

See also Tafel, ii, pp. 177 sqq., and view in Plate XXXVIII.

upper Ya-lung river, or Na(g)-chu. But most of the names in his lists belong, as do those of the other lists, to the districts of the Chin-ch'uan river, i.e. the Rgyal-ron; and Rockhill himself recognizes this, locating some of them on the Chin-ch'uan river and noting that So-mo is near to Sung-p'an. It seems possible that some reminiscence of the original ethnical situation may have been in the minds of Rockhill's informants.

The people of the 'Women's Kingdom' are definitely recognized by the Chinese Annals as Ch'iang; and from the Tibetan side this is confirmed by the Geografia Tibeta, which, after giving (p. 46) the names of the 'Eighteen States', remarks that all these peoples, such as Mi-nag, Rgyal-mo-ron (these also in Padma-than-yig, tr. Toussaint, pp. 298 sqq.) peoples and Mi-li, are not proper Tibetans'.

Nevertheless they can hardly be regarded as typical Ch'iang; occupying permanent settlements in ron districts, partly well wooded and thickly populated,³ they represent a stage more developed than that of the true nomad Ch'iang of the high thans. And this was the case in early times, as we see from the Chinese descriptions, with the mention of the '80 cities', and as appears from the tone of the 'Sum-pa Mother's sayings'.

The Rgyal-ron language is represented by the Gyārūng vocabulary of Hodgson and by those of von Rosthorn, who distinguishes several dialects, and Wolfenden. Dr. Tafel, who also notes various dialects of 'Kin-tschuan' speech, including one, that of 'Kretschiu', which is markedly distinct (ii, pp. 248 n. 1, 263), informs us that, whereas the native language is never written (ii, p. 230), Tibetan proper is not ordinarily understood in the country, except by persons who have been in connexion with the local monasteries, Buddhist or Bon-po. He gives (pp. 230–40) some interesting items of the vocabulary and also communicates (pp. 232–3) six lines of a song, which he says is 'half in Tibetan, half in Kin-tschuan language'. To this matter it will be necessary to recur, since the mixture is a topic of great importance in regard to the 'Hsi-fan' languages generally, and the actual proportion of half-to-half requires revision in the light of the translation which Dr. Tafel

Bushell, pp. 473, 532; Rockhill, p. 340.

² The people of Dmar-khams (SW, of Ba-t'ang) also are described (p. 44) as 'savage and coarse and in language resembling the Mi-ñag'.

See Edgar, The Marches of the Mantze, pp. 7, 48, 64; Tafel, ii, p. 241.
So generally in E. Tibet, Rockhill, p. 196; Gill, pp. 198-9, 227-8, &c.;
Tafel, ii, pp. 172, 196-7, &c.

⁴ See infra, pp. 71, 89.

⁵ Cf. Fergusson, op. eit., pp. 126, 255.

communicates. The Rgyal-roń language has, as was remarked by Hodgson in 1853, and by von Rosthorn's editor, Professor Conrady, in 1897, a special feature, namely possession of syllabic, classificatory, prefixes, which is less prominent in other 'Hsi-fan' languages.¹

In the northern part of the Rgyal-ron Dr. Tafel takes note (ii, pp. 254, 256, 282) of the Chinese Musalman tea-traders,² who from that quarter penetrate far into the 'Go-lok' country; and he was aware of nomads, obviously Go-lok, bringing skins, wool, and other wares in the reverse direction. Since the upper valleys on the south of the Bayankara range and to the north of the states on the upper Ya-lung river and to the north and north-west of the Rgyal-ron are considered to be Go-lok country,³ those individuals may have come from that quarter. But the main habitat of these marauding tribes is north of the Bayankara, in the long valley of the upper Rma-chu, from the two lakes, Charing-nor and Oring-nor,⁴ as far as its knee and still farther east; also the country east of the gorge of the Rma-chu, as far as the south-north stretch of the T'ao river; and again a mountainous area north of the actual Koko-nor and another area to its south.⁵

The meaning of the term Go-lok⁶ is not definitely known; by Futterer, Filchner, and Tafel it is spelled Ngolok; if it was so heard by them, it may be, in fact, the Tibetan expression no-log, 'recalcitrant', 'rebel'. It is likely that this term is not a racial or national one, but is applied to the tribes simply with reference to their marauding and thievish practices, which have made them the terror of all travellers, both foreign and native, in north-eastern Tibet. Though nominally Buddhist and having Buddhist monasteries, including the great establishment of Bla-bran (Lhabrang), in their country, they wear their religion lightly, and pilgrim travellers, whether in small or in great companies, have reason to

See infra, p. 96.
 The Sharbas of Rockhill, pp. 54, 112.
 Rockhill, pp. 188-9, 228, 232; Tafel, ii, pp. 170 and n. 3, 247, 253, 291.

⁴ On these names see p. 4 n. 4.

See the map.

^{*} Hue and Gabet's Kolo (ii, p. 100).

⁷ The Geografia Tibeta seems to spell Mgo-log (p. 48). Elsewhere (p. 45) it uses the expression rkun-jag, 'thieves-robbers', the latter syllable being the 'Chakpa or Jagpa' of Hodgson, p. 123.

^{*} Tafel, ii, p. 291 n. 2.

Views in d'Ollone, pp. 282, 284, 286; Tafel, ii, Plates LXVI, LXXI; Tsibikov, p. 41; Kozlov-Filchner, Mongolei, Amdo und die tote Stadt Charachoto, pp. 197-213.

beware of them. The name accepted by them, in common with all Tibetans of the Koko-nor region is Panak'a, usually with the addition of sum, 'three', with reference to the triple division stated above.1 Rockhill (Diary, p. 112) interprets the name Pa-nag as meaning the 'eight' (pa = Chinese pa[r], 'eight') 'Nag tribes'; but the explanation of Dr. Tafel,2 who restricts the term Go-lok to the tribes of the upper Rma-chu, is far preferable; he states (i, p. 177 n.) that all Koko-nor (nomad) Tibetans are called Banag. probably by reason of their 'black tents'; and in fact the black tents (sbra-nag) of the Tibetans were proverbial even in the eighth century A.D. (Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, i, p. 273.) The Koko-nor Panag are described as 'Tangutans' in Prejevalsky's Mongolia (trans., vol. ii, pp. 109-22) and also by Dr. Filchner in his Kumbum (1933, pp. 383, 390, 476 sqq.); for those east of the Rma-chu gorge we have good lights in Durch Asien, by Dr. Futterer, who traversed the country from Kuei-tê to, and along, the Tao river, and also the more lively narrative of the Vicomte d'Ollone (trans., In Forbidden China, pp. 240 sqq.); and an intimate picture of the Panag or Go-lok of the upper Rma-chu is to be seen in Dr. Filchner's book of travel and adventure, Das Rätsel des Matschü (pp. 105 sqq.).

Geographically, as is apparent from the above sketch, there is no breach in their continuity, since, as we have seen, there is between the two southern divisions of them easy communication by way of the Rma-chu knee, and since south of the Koko-nor the Rma-chu is not in modern times, and was not in ancient times, a barrier.

It is not worth while to cite the names of particular settlements and tribes recorded by modern travellers or entered on the maps.³ The localities are not likely to be ancient; and the tribal divisions may have been continuously fluid, as they are stated to have been in early centuries. Possibly the Me-tsang tribe, placed on the map some distance to the south of the Rma-chu knee, may be the Misang mentioned by the Chinese T'ang Annals as among the Ch'iang tribes on the southern border of the Tang-hsiang kingdom; and the Sam-sa tribe, near the knee of the Rma-chu, may be the Sam-tsia of ancient times (infra, p. 41).

Rockhill, p. 73, Diary, pp. 112-13, with a list of tribes, pp. 113-14.

i, pp. 177-8 n., and ii, pp. 291-2 with a list of the tribes on the upper Rma-chu.

² See Filchner, Das Rätsel des Matschü and sketch-map; Tafel, ii, pp. 291-2; also the narratives of Futterer and d'Ollone.

These Panak'a Go-lok tribes seem to be the genuine descendants of the Ch'iang. In sociology, manners, and dress they appear to differ little from their predecessors, whom the Chinese Sui and T'ang Annals1 describe as in morals and customs the worst of savages; they were all fighting men and much given to robbing and plundering. They did not (in most places) till the soil. They got barley from neighbouring countries; from it they made a fermented drink. At present they include in their diet the tsamba (rtsam-pa, parched barley meal) of the Tibetans; and tea, brought by the Chinese Sharba Musalmans from Sung-p'an and Ta-chien-lu, is to them as indispensable as it is to all Tibetans. In their armature they have progressed to guns and rifles;2 but the long spears depicted in the illustrations of all modern books of travel3 are perhaps similar to those mentioned in the Later Han Annals (infra, p. 39). The statement that against cold and privations they were hardened like beasts is well illustrated by the Vicomte d'Ollone's lively narrative concerning his Go-lok escort (p. 261):

'At early dawn there was a sudden lull in the storm. . . . We looked round for our Tibetans, meaning to order them to load the pack train, but there were no Tibetans to be seen. Had they deserted? But no, their yaks were there, and even their enormous lances, thrust vertically into the soil. Where were they?

'At the foot of the lances we saw the snow moving, and on looking closely we noticed swellings in the dense white carpet. These swellings represented the Tibetans, who were sleeping the sleep of the just. They had no need of tents; unloosing their girdles, which had kilted their sheepskins up to their knees, they allowed the former to fall over their feet, turned their collars up over their ears, turned down the woolly borders of their caps, and with their naked bodies thus protected they reclined peacefully in the snow, leaving it to cover them with a warm counterpane. Rather too warm, if anything! When at our summons they awoke, their first care was to throw back their cloaks and bathe their bodies in the freezing wind.'

Naturally the conditions would be modified in the districts bordering on China and along the Rma-chu and other rivers where there were fixed settlements and some cultivation of 'the five cereals'.

¹ Rockhill, pp. 337-8.

³ Dr. Filchner mentions (Om Mani Padme Hum, p. 145) their 'modern weapons'.

Filchner, Das Rätsel, &c., pp. 200, 364; d'Ollone, pp. 232, 250, 268, 274.

The Panak'a occupy, as has been stated, extensive areas of Hbrog country, both on the north and on the south-west of the Koko-nor. Their western neighbours are the Mongols, whose settlements and encampments are found both on the north of the actual Tsaidam swamp, as far as the Sirtin district in the extreme north, and also to the south of it along the route to Charklik in Chinese Turkestan. Also on routes diverging westwards from Bokalik, where are ancient gold workings, and the Hajjar district, to the Tokuz-dawān and Cer-cen in Chinese Turkestan, the very sparse population is Mongol; moreover, immediately to the west, and also to the east, of the Koko-nor itself are Mongol settlements, and even as far down the Hoang-ho valley as the mouth of the Ta-t'ung-ho river there is an old Mongol population.

Ordinary Tibetan speech and mixed race are represented by the monasteries, on the one hand, and by towns, such as Tankar, and permanent villages to the south and south-west of the Koko-nor,2 on the other; also, of course, by travelling and trading Tibetans, especially from Khams,3 Hsi-ning, which has a Chinese administration and partly Chinese or semi-Chinese population, and also Lusar and Kum-bum, through the attraction of the famous monastery, are very cosmopolitan.4 Hsi-ning, with its telegraph and its British missionary station, is not infrequently visited by European, including Russian, travellers and trade agents, also individual traders from Chinese Turkestan and even India; and there are, further, the official and trade connexions with Lan-chou, the provincial capital, and so with China in general. Then there are the compulsory ceremonial visits of Mongol and other chiefs from the Tsaidam and elsewhere, and visits in connexion with particular questions and disputes.5 The Chinese Amban's travelling agents6 are also arriving from distant places with their reports. From the surrounding areas there are Mongol and Tibetan traders, bringing

On these Mongols and their tribes ('Banners') and history see Hue and Gabet, ii, pp. 99-102; Prejevalsky, ii, pp. 148-52, 168-9; Rockhill, pp. 135-67, 171-2, 176, 180; Diary, pp. 156-60; Tafel, i, pp. 187-93, ii, pp. 68-70.

² Rockhill was convinced (p. 72) of the mixed descent of these T'u-fan, whose speech also contained 'a large proportion of Chinese, Turkish, and Mongol words and expressions'.

⁸ Rockhill, pp. 111, 129. On the Kham-pas in general see Sandberg, op. cit., pp. 154-8; Tafel, ii, pp. 143, sqq., and supra, p. 8 and n. 2.

⁴ See, for instance, Rockhill, pp. 40, 110-12, and Tafel, ii, p. 83.

See Rockhill, p. 54; Tafel, ii, p. 69.

On these t'ung-shihs see Rockhill, pp. 52-3.

salt, skins, musk, Lha-sa incense-sticks, &c., while tea and some other Chinese articles come to Tankar and Hsi-ning through the Go-lok country, brought by Sharba Musalmans from Sung-p'an in Ssū-ch'uan.

The Turki-speaking Musalman Salars, numerous in Hsi-ning, but congregated chiefly in the district of Ho-chou and farther west, at Hsun-hwa, on the Rma-chu, are said to have come from Turfan or Hami in Chinese Turkestan, during the fifteenth to sixteenth century, while a greater historical interest belongs to a tribe Tung-hou, reported in an eighteenth-century Chinese work and claiming descent from the Sha-t'o Turk tribe, which was transported by the Tibetans to Kan-chou after the conquest of Pei-t'ing in A.D. 790.²

Concerning the Chinese side of the Nan-shan and the line of the lower T'ao river it does not seem possible to venture upon any positive statement. In regard to the people of Kan-su Fathers Huc and Gabet, whose route was from Ning-hsia in a south-west direction to P'ing-fan, remark (English translation, i, p. 281) that:

'a very slight observation of the inhabitants of Kan-su will satisfy one that they are not of purely Chinese origin. The Tartaro-Thibetian element is manifestly predominant amongst them, and it displays itself with special emphasis in the character, manners and language of the country people.'

and they proceed to give particulars. These observations of the two Fathers, whose natural acuteness was reinforced by familiarity with Chinese and Mongol language and life, would be confirmed by the Chinese themselves, aware that, despite ages of Sinification, the population of Kan-su retains peculiarities of speech and habits. But the history of the province has been so complicated by invasions, immigrations, deportations, dynasties, and foreign dominations that the available information is a chaos. The actual topographical nomenclature, which might have been a help, is hidden beneath a network of Chinese official designations. In regard to the pre-Chinese period (down to 121 B.C.) one or two facts do emerge, but ethnographically and linguistically they are not sufficiently definite.

It is, however, undeniable that down to modern times the

Rockhill, pp. 44-5, 325; Bushell, p. 533 (57).

On the Salars see Geografia Tibeta, p. 51; Prejevalsky, ii, p. 149; Rockhill, pp. 39-40, 323, Diary, pp. 62, 66, 76-83; Grenard, ii, pp. 455, 457; Tafel, i, pp. 161-5.

eastern flanks of the Nan-shan and the line of the Tao river retained many tribes or fragments of Ch'iang peoples, either settled as agriculturists, in Chinese territory or otherwise, or reckoned as independent. In The Land of the Lamas (pp. 323-6) Rockhill gives from an eighteenth-century Chinese text1 a list of 'Foreign Tribes of Kan-su', which includes many names of Hsich'iang and Hsi-fan groups, some belonging to the districts of Su-chou, Kan-chou, and Liang-chou, others to Ho-chou and the line of the lower Tao river, as well as tribes of the Hsi-ning and Koko-nor region. But the groups are too small and numerous, and the data concerning their history too few and dubious, to allow of any wide inference as to a continuous Ch'iang occupation of the districts where they are found; one or two are stated to have immigrated from the Koko-nor region, and some of them, not said to be of Hsi-ch'iang descent, may be merely Tibetan. Also it is not stated to what extent they were in speech still non-Chinese.

HISTORICAL SITUATION IN NORTH-EASTERN TIBET DURING THE SEVENTH TO EIGHTH CENTURY A.D.

In order to arrive at the conditions existing in Amdo during the seventh and eighth centuries A.D. it is necessary to peel off, so to speak, a number of accretions belonging to later times. First the existing Chinese administrations from Hsi-ning, whose travelling agents (t'ung-shih) were met by Rockhill even as far as the upper reaches of the Hbri-chu,2 where they were almost in contact with the authority of the Governor-General of Ssu-ch'uan. This administration is attended by a vast amount of the precise gazetteer information favoured by the Chinese. Rockhill himself made use of a gazetteer work3 relating to the Koko-nor region; and in Dr. Filchner's map of the Chinese province Kan-su4 we find the whole area, including much of the Panak'a country, studded with names, largely, so far as that country, at least, is concerned, otherwise unknown, and all systematically transcribed from a Chinese map giving the administrative divisions. This Chinese rule is an inheritance from the Mongol dynasty, the Mongols under Cingiz Khan having, by the overthrow (A.D. 1226) of the Tangut empire (NE. Tibet and most of the Chinese province of Kan-su). brought all north-eastern Tibet under Mongol suzerainty. To this

¹ Huang-ch'ing-chih-kung-t'u, Book V.

^{*} Pp. 162, 165.

² Diary, p. 96 (Hsi-ning Fu hsin chih).

Wissenschaftliche Ergebnisse der Expedizion Filchner, iii, Berlin, 1910.

conquest and the subsequent long domination of the successors of Cingiz Khan and Kublai Khan, followed by the invasion of Gusri Khan in A.D. 1636, must be attributed the fact that the map of the whole area is full of Mongol names; all the nor's (Koko-nor, 'Blue Lake', Dabasun-nor, 'Salt Lake', Tosun-nor, 'Butter Lake', Charing-nor, Oring-nor, &c.), all the ula's ('mountains'), most of the gols ('rivers, river-valleys'), some particular names, such as Bayankara, Murus-ussu (the Hbri-chu), the Baron and Jun, 'Right and Left', districts in the Tsaidam, Odontala ('Star-plain'. =Tibetan Skar-ma-than) by the uppermost Rma-chu, &c., are due either to this domination or to the long ecclesiastical connexion between Mongolia, Kum-bum, and Lha-sa. The Pan-chen Dpal-ldan Ye-ses, as we have seen (p. 13), regards the whole of Amdo west of the Koko-nor as Stod-Sog, 'Upper Mongolia'. All such names and also the Mongol 'Banners' and settlements in the Tsaidam and the Koko-nor districts, and among the Panak'as and elsewhere farther south, have to be erased from the picture.

The pre-Mongol Tangut kingdom, of which the Chinese Annals give a very substantial account, was under a Ch'iang (Tanghsiang) dynasty, and its language, the Hsi-hsia, was presumably a Ch'iang dialect; from A.D. 1035 to 1226 it cut off the Tibetans from all interference in Amdo and Kan-su. The Tibetan domination in Amdo may be said to have begun about A.D. 635, when the Btsan-po, Sron-btsan Sgam-po, having in his application for a Chinese princess as a consort received a rebuff, which he attributed to the T'u-yü-hun dynasty of the Koko-nor,

'thereupon, together with the Yangtung, led the united armies to attack the T'ukuhun. The T'ukuhun were unable to withstand him, and fled to the banks of the Ch'inghai [Koko-nor] to escape the edge of the sword. . . . He next led on his troops, attacked and defeated the Tanghsiang, the Pailan, and other Ch'iang tribes, and at the head of an army of over 200,000 men, encamped on the western border of Sungehou (Sung-p'an), whence he sent envoys to the emperor.'2

After a temporary success at Sung-chou he sustained a defeat and retired.

This occurrence opened the long struggle between the Tibetans and the Chinese Empire, which empire was by all the peoples mentioned, as well as by the Tanguts in later times, acknowledged

See Bichurin, Istoria Tibeta i Khukhunora, ii, pp. 1–164.
 Bushell, p. 444.

as suzerain. In Amdo during the remainder of the seventh century and the first part of the eighth the conflicts took place usually in the country between the Koko-nor and the Rma-chu;1 and the peace of A.D. 7302 between Chinese, Tibetans, Hjan (Tang-hsiang), and Drug (Turks of Central Asia), was commemorated on the part of the Tibetans by a great Buddhist foundation, established near the frontier then fixed in the Byarmo-than district, west of the Koko-nor.3 We may, therefore, understand that the Chinese were still maintaining their ancient administrative area within the above- (p. 12) mentioned branch of the Great Wall. Later the Tibetans advanced farther and farther into China, until in A.D. 763 they actually entered the capital, Hsi-ngan-fu, or Ch'ang-an, in Shen-hsi, far down the Wei river; during this second period most of the operations took place in the Tang-hsiang country and along the line of the Tao river, and the treaty of A.D. 783 fixed the boundary on the border of Shen-hsi, far within Chinese territory.

The subsequent history of the Tibetan dominion in Amdo and the east does not greatly, except in regard to language and the Buddhist religion, concern us here. To the matter of language we shall return.

As regards Buddhism, the foundation in the Byar-mo-than may have been its first introduction into Amdo, at least as far as Tibetan Buddhism is concerned, but it seems possible that in Ho-chou there may have been an earlier establishment from the Chinese side. During the period of Tibetan rule there must have been a continuous increase in the number of Buddhist monasteries, which now are everywhere to be found. The Tangut kingdom was, from the eleventh century onwards, professedly Buddhist, and in its language, the Hsi-hsia, are many volumes and fragments of texts, recovered by Russian and British excavations at Kharakhoto on the Etsingol river in the Gobi desert; also some inscriptions and coin legends, published at an earlier date. In the Tangut home country (Tang-hsiang) there is, in addition to the great establishment of Lhabrang (Bla-bran), a monastery in the territory of the Co-ne tribe, celebrated for its somewhat independent edition

¹ This appears both from the T'ang Annals, as rendered by Bushell, and from the Tibetan manuscript Chronicle.

Bushell, p. 466.

² Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, pp. 104-9.

⁴ See Kozlov-Filchner, Mongolei, Amdo und die tote Stadt Chara-choto (Berlin, 1925), and Sir A. Stein, Innermost Asia, i, pp. 429 sqq.

of the Lamaist canon.¹ Nevertheless, along all the Sino-Tibetan frontier from the 'Women's Kingdom' northwards the Bon-po religion maintains itself in despite of orthodox disapproval;² and in pre-Tibetan times this, in some early forms, was the religion of all Ch'iang peoples.

The T'u-yū-hun kingdom, which preceded the Tibetans and of which also the Chinese Annals furnish an extensive dynastic account,3 was an extraneous element, perhaps only a ruling race, in Amdo. The people were of what the Chinese name 'Sien-pi' stock, originated in north-eastern Asia and in language more akin to the Mongols than to the Turks. From A.D. 313, when they first invaded the Koko-nor region, until their final defeat and expulsion by the Tibetans in 663 they dominated that area during 350 years, having as their capital a place called Fussu ch'eng,4 15 li west of the Koko-nor, and as their southern boundary the Rma-chu; during the latter part of the period their rule extended, under Chinese suzerainty, which they frequently resisted, to parts of Chinese Turkestan (the Shan-shan kingdom from about A.D. 445) and Kan-su (Sha-chou, Liang-chou). For our purpose their significance lies in the fact that the separate existence of the Tang-hsiang kingdom, south of the Rma-chu, was perhaps a reaction from their occupation of the Hsi-ning-Koko-nor district, which had previously been the centre of influence for all the tribes.

The Tang-hsiang kingdom, which, as we have seen, had the Rma-chu and the T'u-yü-hun on its north, is stated in the Sui Annals to have bordered to the east on Lin- and T'ao-chou, which would mean the line of the lower T'ao river. The T'ang Annals, which mention that since the period A.D. 535-581 the Tang-hsiang people had greatly spread and now bordered to the east on Sung-chou (Sung-p'an) and to the south on the Ch'un-sang, Mi-sang, and other Ch'iang tribes, may indicate an extension in a south-easterly

For notices see Rockhill, pp. 217-18, 275, Diary (Index); Tafel, ii, pp. 82, 185, 199, 229, 236, 240, 246; d'Ollone, p. 212; Futterer, i, p. 279; Edgar, p. 63; Fergusson, pp. 104, 200, 242, 249-50.

⁸ Bichurin, op. cit., i, pp. 74-99; cf. Bushell, pp. 527-8 (11); Rockhill, pp. 335-6.

* Bushell, loc. cit.

¹ Geografia Tibeta, p. 50. On Co-ne see Tafel, ii, pp. 296, 305 (Dschoni): a view of the village (Pschoni, Cho-nieh, on the T'ao river) in Futterer, op. cit. i, pp. 435-6, with description.

⁵ Bichurin, op. cit., i, pp. 237–58. See also Bushell, p. 528 (12); Rockhill, pp. 337–8.

direction, and may explain the statement concerning the 'Women's Kingdom'that it had the Tang-hsiang and Mao-chou on the east,1 whereas in fact the Tang-hsiang were mainly on its north. The statement that 'they live in secluded, rugged valleys, many of them three thousand li from any other tribe' would be hardly explicable, did we not assume that by that time they had spread to the uppermost Rma-chu valley; for their original western frontier must have been the Rma-chu gorge, since we have to find room for the Pailan. But perhaps all is made clear by the statement of the Sui Annals, that 'they comprise the T'ang-chang, Pai-lang, etc.' They had, in fact, absorbed their western neighbours, the Pailan, and might to the west constitute a barrier against the 'Yeh-Hu', of whom, however, nothing is known. From A.D. 629 'they gradually became subject' (to China), and their tribes were divided into chou and hsien, ruled by their own chiefs and subject to a governor-general, resident at Sung-chou. It was, as we have seen, not long after this that 'they were annexed by the T'ufan', i.e. by Sron-btsan Sgam-po and his successors, and the country afterwards became one of the main theatres of the Sino-Tibetan wars. It is from about A.D. 757 that the T'ang Annals begin to trace the fortunes of the leading, perhaps most eastern, clan, the To-pa, which through the weakening of the Tibetans from about the middle of the ninth century became powerful and ultimately founded the Tangut empire.

Some particulars of the Chinese description of the Tang-hsiang people have been extracted above (p. 22) for application to their Go-lok descendants. But ethnographically it may be of interest to add one or two further items, which may be for the most part applicable to all the free Ch'iang peoples of the period.²

'A tribe is divided into little clans. A large one comprises a myriad horsemen, a small one several thousand.... They have no houses, but with the hair of their yak and the wool of their sheep they weave stuff out of which they make tents, hose location they change accordingly to the season of the year.... Their hair is matted, their faces filthy, and their feet bare. They live on roots and game. Men

Bushell, p. 531 (42); Rockhill, p. 340.
Rockhill, p. 338.

³ In the Sui Annals these numbers are stated, more moderately, as 5,000 and 1,000 respectively.

^{4 &#}x27;The most common, indeed the only industry of the Tangutans is preparing yak (or more rarely sheep's) wool for cloth, out of which all their clothes are made' (Prejevalsky, ii, p. 118; cf. Rockhill, who adds, p. 81, yak-hair cloth for tents and tanning of skins).

and women wear long skin gowns, or of coarse woollen stuff with a nappy surface. They have no written characters, but record the years by means of little reeds. Once every three years they assemble together and worship heaven by sacrificing oxen and sheep. A son may marry his deceased father's or uncle's wives (or wife); a younger brother his deceased brother's wife, but he may not marry a person of the same cognomen as himself. When an old person dies, the children and grandchildren do not weep, but, if a young person dies, they say it is a great wrong and they lament over him."

It must be admitted that some points in the description recur in the Chinese accounts (Bushell, pp. 442, 527-8; Rockhill, pp. 335-8) of the T'u-yü-hun and the Tibetans and even in the early accounts of ancient peoples, Hsiung-nu, Sien-pi, &c. (Parker in The China Review, xx, pp. 1-2, 73-4), so that they may have been commonplaces in the Annalists' conceptions of frontier barbarians. Disregard for age is attributed in these works to all the above-named peoples. For a less external view, permitting an insight into the Bon-po religion of this people, and also a glimpse of a more primitive stratum of belief and practice, as well as of their more general mentality, we must turn to the sole literary product known to have emanated from them, a text contained in an eighth-to-ninth century manuscript, in Tibetan language. Naturally it represents the comparatively civilized class of chieftains and priests, and in fact it belongs not to the Tang-hsiang definitely, but to the somewhat earlier period of the T'ang-chang, who had occupied the same country and were in the main, no doubt, the same people under another name.

Of these T'ang-chang the Chinese furnish² a brief description and also a dynastic name, *Lyang*, and list, covering a period from about A.D. 400 to 550, after which the state was suppressed by the Chinese and became the district T'ang-chou; not long afterwards, as we have seen, the state reappeared, in an expanded form, as Tang-hsiang,³ with a dynastic name, in Tibetan *Hjan*, which may be identical with that of its predecessor. The interest of this

¹ On disregard for the old and on early retirement of kings see Bushell, p. 442; Rockhill, pp. 81, 143; Tafel, ii, p. 229 and n.; Fergusson, p. 319; Mrs. Rijnhart, p. 221.

Biehurin, op. cit., i, pp. 109-12.

The persistence of the syllable than in the names connected with this Skyi country, of which persistence another instance may be seen infra (p. 135), is due, no doubt, to the fact that the country predominantly consisted of high than: see supra, pp. 3, 9.

dynasty, apart from its definite dating and the literary connexions mentioned above, is that it was perhaps the first separate organization of Ch'iang tribes south of the Rma-chu. Like its successor, it had rather frequent connexions with the T'u-yü-hun.

The Pailan,1 who by the Chinese are located to the south-west of the T'u-yū-hun and to the west of the Tang-hsiang, must have occupied the mountainous country to the west of the Rma-chu gorge, which country is in the Pan-chen Dpal-ldan Ye-ses' diary styled 'Upper Mongolia'. Except that their western neighbours were the To-mi, or Tang-mi2-unknown, unless they were the Yang-t'ung-and that they were called by the Tibetans 'Tingling', that they were divided into Black and White, that in customs they resembled the Tang-hsiang, the Chinese inform us only that in A.D. 561 their prince sent gifts to the Chinese court, and that in A.D. 624 they submitted to China and their country was made Wei-chou and K'ung-chou.3 The submission, probably in any case a mere formality, was of very brief duration, since before A.D. 650 the people were conquered by the Tibetans and thenceforward acted as the vanguard of the Tibetan invading armies. The interest of the Pailan resides in their name, which will be considered infra.

In order to discuss the Ch'iang of the actual Hsi-ning-Kokonor area it is necessary to ascend through several centuries to the period preceding the irruption of the T'u-yū-hun people in A.D. 313. And, since until that time the Hsi-Ch'iang, 'Western Ch'iang', peoples of Amdo and the adjacent districts of China, may be regarded, if not as a whole, at least as a single mass, the account may go back as far as the really historical beginnings, about the end of the second century B.C. It will, however, be instructive to commence by taking note of the conditions indicated by the foundation of the above-mentioned Buddhist monastery in the territory immediately west of the Koko-nor itself.

The foundation, which was, as already mentioned, designed to commemorate a compact of permanent peace (A.D. 730) between the Chinese, the Tibetans, the Drug (the Turks of Central Asia), and the Hjan (the Tang-hsiang)—the T'u-yü-hun, expelled in A.D. 663, passing unmentioned—was described as the monastery of the 'De-ga G-yu-tshal' ('De Turquoise Forest'), the suffix ga

Bushell, p. 528 (3); Bichurin, i, pp. 113, 232.

² Bushell, p. 541 (10).

² Ibid., pp. 528 (13), 541 (10).

(in De-ga) being used in Amdo to form adjectives of locality. The monastery was compared to 'a flower blooming in the auspicious Dbyar-mo-than' ('Dbyar Steppe'); and here again we have the evidence of parallel expressions proving that Dbyar is a tribal name. On the particular occasion messages of prayer and congratulation upon the 'face-warming' of the foundation were received from

(a) the authorities of the realm of Mdo-gams;

(b) the Councillors of Bde;

- (c) two great cities, Mkhar-tsan and Kva-cu, of Western Kan-su;
- (d) the commandant of the 'Thousand-district' of Phyug-tsams;

(e) the Estate, or Territory, of Hbrom-khon;

and the Bde councillors use the phrase 'Hgren people', which from other evidences we know to have denoted not merely 'upright man' as opposed to prone beast, but also a particular people, whose country was accordingly named Hgren-ro.3 That this name Hgren is the native word represented by the Chinese k'iang, ch'iang (originally kren), is a suggestion which we owe to Professor Pelliot.4

It is possible that the text, which is fragmentary, opened with a message from the Tibetan Btsan-po himself. But in other respects the hierarchy of authorities is patent. First we have the (Tibetan) councillors of Mdo-gams, which is either Amdo or a whole, Mdo-smad, consisting of Amdo and Khams. Under Mdo-gams come the councillors of Bde, a division of the same, and known by several mentions both of the councillors and also of a place Bde-gams, on doubt their administrative centre. We then digress to two great cities of western Kan-su, which at the time were under Tibetan authority, exercised, as from other references also appears, through the Bde Council. Returning to Amdo, we come to the Tibetan official in command of the 'Thousand-district' Phyug-tsams, the term 'Thousand-district' which denotes probably an area of about 1,000 households, being well

4 JRAS. 1928, p. 98.

¹ Gnam-ka-Lon-sum, 'Lon-sum in heaven', sa-ga-Gdin-drug, 'Gdin-drug on earth'.

Cf. Rgya-mo-than, 'Chinese plain', Mon-mo-than', 'Mon plain'.
 Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, pp. 61-2, 87, 108-9, &c.

Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, Bde, ii, pp. 10, 20; Councillors of, ii, pp. 20, 25, 99, 124, 319; Bde-gams, ii, pp. 22, 57-8, 78-9, 108, 338.

evidenced in Chinese Turkestan, both contemporary and prior. Nor does it seem doubtful that Phyug-tsams is the same as the capital of the T'u-yü-hun, Fussű ch'êng, $15\ li$ west of the Kokonor, which had walls but was not lived in. It was, in fact, a 'great mart' and not different from the 'great mart' (khrom-chen-po) of the Dbyar-mo-than, mentioned in another document; the Chinese syllable represented by Fu was in early times sounded bhyuk. There cannot have been two 'great marts' in the than country adjoining the Koko-nor on the west.

The Dbyar-mo-than is rather famous; it is mentioned in one of the ancient inscriptions in Lha-sa, the Potala pillar inscription of c. A.D. 764, relating to the Sino-Tibetan wars. The G-yer-mo-than ('a place in Kham'), Yar-mo-than and G-yar-mo-than ('a district in the province of lower Amdo and Khams') of S. C. Das's Tibetan Dictionary are evidently the same place, which perhaps acquired literary notoriety through the treaty and the foundation of the monastery in question. The place is still known in Tibet by its old name, being mentioned, as G-yar-mo-than, in the Geografia Tibeta of Mintshul Huthuktu (p. 55), where it is duly located on

¹ The expression in its Tibetan form (ston-sde) was current in Tibet and Chinese Turkestan during the 8th century A.D. (Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, i, pp. 283-4; ii, pp. 315-16). But an equivalent was also used by the Chinese in W. Kan-su (L. Giles, B.S.O.S. vi, pp. 831-2, vii, p. 850); and the T'u-yū-hun had officials over 'Thousands' (Bichurin, i, p. 97). An administrative division into 'Thousands' (kun, gun) is still found among the Salars in Amdo (Rockhill, Diary, pp. 62, 66, 76-7, 80-1; Tafel, i, p. 162). Perhaps the 'Thousand-district' was a district of approximately 1,000 families. Cf. the ancient Sanskrit term sahasra-pati? An official hierarchy of heads of 10,100, and 1,000 families is, however, known to have existed among the ancient Hsiung-nu (see Parker in China Review, xx, p. 9) and even at present it exists in the Pamir, where the titles are, in Turki, \$\tilde{U} n-b\tilde{a}sh\tilde{i}, y\tilde{u}z-b\tilde{a}sh\tilde{i}, and min-b\tilde{a}sh\tilde{i} (Orientalisches Archiv, ii, p. 29).

Rockhill, p. 336. On such uninhabited 'market-towns' see Forsyth, Mission to Yarkund, p. 32, and, in Ssu-ch'uan, Baber, op. cit., p. 10. Cf. Bichurin, p. 97.

See Inventaire des MSS. tibétains de Touen-houang par Mdlle Lalou, i, No. 16.

⁴ JRAS. 1910, pp. 1259, 1278 (L 33).

The alternation by/gy (g-y), although perhaps a case of a more general alternation b/g, seen, for instance in gams/bams (pp. 241-2 infra), is to be discriminated from the modern Tibetan amalgamation of by and gy in j. It is ancient and probably dialectical or regional: an instance given in the Dictionary is g-yi=dbyi, 'lynx'. Quite parallel to Dbyar/G-yar is the ancient Amdo tribal name Byim-po, which in the Tibetan manuscript Chronicle has two occurrences, in the first of which it is a correction of Gyim-po: the Tibetan manuscripts mentioned infra (pp. 130 sqq.) have Gyim-po. See infra, pp. 134-5.

the shore of the Mtsho Khri-sor Rgyal-mo, the Koko-nor, in the vicinity of the Mongol settlements. In one of the Tibetan manuscripts there is mention of a 'meadow G-ye-mo', which, by reason of the circumstances, must be the same place; and in the same connexion another of the manuscripts mentions a meadow Phugdir(tir), which is perhaps related to Phyug-tsams.

Finally, the 'Turquoise Wood' (G-yu-tshal) also has an historical name. For the Byar-mo-than is, no doubt, the greater of the two 'Great and Little Yu (turquoise, jade) Valleys', often mentioned by the Later Han Annals2 as west of the Ching-hai, the 'Blue Lake', and head-quarters of the leading Ch'iang tribes. To the Ch'iang people the great lake was not the 'Blue Lake' (Mtshoshon-po, Ch'ing-hai, Koko-nor) of the Tibetans, Chinese and Mongols, but the 'Turquoise Lake' (G-yu-mtsho).3

The 'than of the Byar people' (Byar-mo-than) may help us to explain the name Pailan. On the south-eastern frontier of the 'Women's Kingdom', near to Ya-chou, was another Pailang tribe,4 whose name is spelled with the same Chinese characters, the first of the two being the word for 'white', now sounded pai and po. But a Chinese scholar, Wang Ching-ju, 5 in editing and discussing three little songs in that people's speech, which, being included in the Later Han Annals,6 are the oldest known composition in Tibeto-Burman, adopts the transliteration Bair-lang; and, although a philological justification of this is not visible in Professor Karlgren's Analytical Dictionary or other familiar authorities, the double pronunciation in ordinary Chinese and the double form of the word (h(p)aku, biaku) in Japanese, suggest that in the history of the word there may have been confusion of synonyms. If the form Bair is justifiable, it would tend to justify also the reading of the same sign in the Koko-nor region as Buar. which better suits the Japanese biaku. But perhaps that is not necessary; for in the same region we have evidence of -ar becoming

See Wylie, op. cit., pp. 445-51.

4 Bushell, p. 531 (42).

as Pih-lang.

¹ The two are perhaps recognizable in Rockhill's account of his first journey, pp. 125-7 ('the valleys of the Buhagol and Dulangol').

² One of the Tibetan manuscripts has G-yu-mtsho-snon-mo, 'Blue Turquoise Lake'.

^{*} Shishiah Studies by Wang Jinqru (Academia Sinica Monographs, Series A, Nos. 8, 11, 13), i, pp. 17-30. Wylie, who translated the songs (op. cit., pp. 239-41), spells the name

-e,¹ and the Byar-mo-than may have been locally a Bye-mo-than = the G-ye-mo mentioned supra (p. 34).

By recognizing the Byar as the Pailan we escape the embarrassment caused by the fact that the latter, despite their services in the Tibetan campaigns, seem never to be mentioned in the manuscript Chronicle, which is largely a history of those campaigns. Byar, on the other hand, is several times mentioned in contexts relating to the Pailan region; and one place, Byar-lins-tshal, 'Byar-lins Wood', definitely assigned to its vicinity,² may contain in its first two syllables an equivalent of the whole name.

It would not be at all in conflict with the facts with which we shall deal, if the Byar-mo-than should have been originally Pailan country. Perhaps we can also explain the name *Ting-ling*, which the Chinese so inexplicably give as the Tibetan designation of the Pailan. It is a well-established fact that in Central Asia the sign transliterated *Ting* might have had ordinarily the pronunciation *Te* or *De*, and the *Byar-lins* may have been *De-lin* by virtue of appertaining to the above-mentioned *De* or *Bde*.

The Tibetan records furnish also some slight further indication of the extent of the De or Bde district, which, being the centre of an authority covering, as does the present Chinese administration at Hsi-ning, places in Western Kan-su (Mkhar-tsan and Kva-cu), must have been spacious. As has been mentioned, the Tibetan Council of Bde-gams supervised also the administration of those parts of Western Kan-su which at the time were subject to Tibet. This appears not from a single reference, but from several,3 and it applies not only to the above-mentioned Mkhar-tsan and Kva-cu, but to other localities also. But the centre of administration, Bdegams, which perhaps means 'Bde posting-station', and likewise 'Bde-sum Wood', though both are mentioned as having been places of 'assemblies', i.e., no doubt, the summer and winter conferences and musters of the Tibetan civil and military powers, have names topographically uninstructive. More significant, no doubt, is a reference to 'Lyon-jen in Bde' in a document emanating from a T'u-yü-hun queen of Tibetan birth.4 From the context it is certain that the place was in T'u-yū-hun territory, and it seems highly probable that it was identical with Liung-ch'êng, which the

¹ Concerning -ar/-e and concerning the equivalence of g-yar and byar see infra, p. 367, also pp. 243, 290.

² Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 48.

³ Ibid., pp. 20, 25, 57-8, 78, 108, 319, 339.

⁴ Ibid., p. 10.

maps record under that name, or as Lang-chen, &c., on the Tat'ung-ho. It is eminently reasonable that the part of Amdo from which authority was exercised over Western Kan-su should have included the region of Hsi-ning and the Ta-t'ung river, whence Kan-su was reached by ancient routes.¹

When we have removed the historical accretions in the form of the modern Chinese administrations, the Mongols, the Tangut kingdom, the Tibetan rule and influence, and the T'u-yū-hun occupation, we come to the prior period of the Hsi-ch'iang, the 'Western Ch'iang'.

THE WESTERN CH'IANG (HSI-CH'IANG)

The most authentic account of the Western Ch'iang is that given in Book CXVII of the Later Han Annals (Hou Han Shu); after a series of notices of Ch'iang tribes of early periods the text makes mention of the first, eponymous, leader of the western Ch'iang, whom it places in the period 475-432 B.C., and then of his descendants and of tribal divisions; after which it embarks upon a history, from about 100 B.C., of the conflicts between the Ch'iang and the Chinese, continued to nearly the end of the second century A.D. Thereafter the Ch'iang are reckoned as subject to China, and for the period A.D. 170-312 we have only a few notices in the T'ang Annals. In A.D. 313 the Koko-nor Ch'iang were conquered, as we have seen, by the T'u-yü-hun. About the same time, more or less, and later there arose in Chinese territory, and also in Amdo, one or two separate Ch'iang states and dynasties,

¹ See Rockhill, p. 41, n. 3, pp. 48-9. Fathers Huc and Gabet followed the route by the valley of the Charing-gol and P'ing-fan (i, p. 285), while Prejevalsky (ii, pp. 59 sqq.) and Futterer (i, pp. 244 sqq.) crossed that valley and then the valley of the Ta-t'ung-ho, making direct for the Kokonor and Hsi-ning. Lieutenant Brooke crossed the mountains from Kan-chou direct to Hsi-ning (Fergusson, p. 51). The northern route to Śa-cu in W. Kan-su, descending via the valley of the Tang-ho, must have been that whereby in ancient times (Wylie, p. 433; De Groot, ii, pp. 197, 202-3) the Ch'iang communicated, through the 'Little Yüeh-chih', with the Hsiung-nu of the north: in modern times it has been followed not only by Mongol pilgrims, but also by explorers, Pandit A-K (see Hennessey, Report on the Explorations in Great Tibet and Mongolia, 1884, pp. 50-4), Messrs. Carey and Dalgleish (R. Geographical Society, Supplementary Papers, iii, pp. 46-8, Proceedings, 1887, pp. 731-52), the Littledales and Sir Sven Hedin.
² Cf. Franke, Geschichte des Chinesischen Reiches, ii, p. 63 and Index.

of which the Pailan, T'ang-chang, and Tang-hsiang have been mentioned above.

The Book CXVII of the Later Han Annals was translated by Wylie in 1882 (Revue de l'Extrême-Orient, vol. i, pp. 423-78), with notes containing valuable identifications of places and dates. In 1926, as pp. 182-200 of Die Westlande Chinas in der vorchristlichen Zeit (Part II of Chinesische Urkunden zur Geschichte Asiens), appeared a translation by De Groot of the portion down to the Christian era, followed by extracts from the biographies of two Chinese generals, both contained in the Former Han Annals. De Groot, who, here as elsewhere, disapproves of his predecessor's translation, has a systematic transcription of Chinese characters. stated to be based upon scholarly tradition, whereas Wylie used a transcription then normal in connexion with Mandarin Chinese: it is unlikely that either transcription would be regarded by Sinologists as adequately historical. The period is too early for certainty in regard to Chinese pronunciation (or pronunciations). Moreover, in cases of foreign names there are the complications arising from transmission, intentional modification, and other causes; certainty is obtained only when we have the names in some alphabetic writing. It seems proper to cite Wylie's translation,1 wherever it is in substantial agreement with that of his successor, and in quotations from the latter to reproduce the form presented by him.

According to the Later Han Annals, the original home of the Ch'iang was on the Tz'u-chih (De Groot Su-ki) river² and reached to the source of the (Hoang-)ho; it had an extension of 1,000 li, and stretched southwards as far as Shuh (the western part of Ssū-ch'uan) and the Han river. From another text De Groot quotes³ the statement that:

'Where the (Huang-)ho river bends and then flows north-east, it cuts through the land of Sik-ki (Hsih-chih). This is accordingly "the bending of the Ho". . . . Then the Ho takes an eastward direction. From the bend it flows through the south of the province Si-hai, "the lake in the west" (Koko-nor) . . . and further east it flows on the north of the district of Ho-kuan, belonging to Lung-si.

With transcription modernized according to Giles's Dictionary.

Op. cit., p. 185, from the Shui-ching-tsü-shih, c. 2, foll. 11 sqq.

Wylie, pp. 424-5 (who, however, speaks of 'the Tsze-che mountain'); De Groot, ii, p. 184.

⁴ Ho-kuan was on the site of the [later] district of Chin-ch'ing, south of Lan-chou (Wylie, p. 425, n. 2).

From this citation it is, observes De Groot, 'clear as daylight' (sonnenklar) where on the map we must look for the land Tz'uchih, which his text explicitly identifies with Hsih-chih. Accordingly in Professor Herrmann's Historical and Commercial Atlas of China (p. 10) we find the country so located. Of De Groot's further suggestion that the Hoang-ho, in the part of its course wherewith the texts are concerned, was itself named Tz'u-chih we are unable to add any confirmation. De Groot himself admits that subsequently (p. 194) there is mention of 'the three rivers (Huang-ho, Hong and Su-ki)'; and in the Annals there are other references to a river 'Su-ki' (e.g. De Groot, p. 195, 'left the Su-ki and the bending of the Huang-ho', and cf. the translation of Wylie, who spells Tsze-che, pp. 443, 447, 449, 473) which do not accord with the suggestion. Su-ki might be a tributary of the Hoang-ho, no other perhaps than the She-chu of the latest map, the 'meandering' Sche-tsche of Dr. Futterer (Durch Asien, i, p. 350 and index), which flows into the Hoang-ho gorge somewhat north of the knee.

It may also perhaps be doubted whether there is really ancient authority for applying the name 'Tsi-shi (Chi-shih) shan' to the Amne Rma-chen range of mountains, as is sometimes done by the Chinese.1 But what is of importance for us here is the obvious identity of the Hsih-chih country with the land of the T'ang-chang and Tang-hsiang and the fact that in the Tang Annals this identity is affirmed.2 The importance of the observation lies in the fact that it enables us to identify with the Tang-hsiang country the district Skyi,3 frequently mentioned in the Tibetan Chronicle as sphere of military struggles with the Chinese during the seventh and eighth centuries; thus we acquire the names of many places in the Tang-hsiang country and at the same time learn from this instance that on the Ch'iang-Tibetan side of the mountains the nomenclature may have been more durable than was usual in China, where reshuffling and renaming seem to have been an administrative passion.

Although the ethnographical characteristics ascribed in the Later Han Annals compose much the same picture as the Sui and T'ang Annals have given (supra, pp. 22, 29–30) in regard to the

¹ Franke, Geschichte des Chinesischen Reiches, i, p. 6; ii, p. 371; iii, pp. 3, 255.

Rockhill, p. 338; Biehurin, i, p. 238.

Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 48.

Go-lok and the Tang-hsiang, yet, since we have now reached the fountain head and are contemplating the Ch'iang people in general, it is not superfluous to reproduce it here:

'Fixed settlements there are not, for they have to accommodate and direct themselves according to the districts where there is water, so that plants grow. The five cereals are indeed but little produced in the land, and consequently they make cattle rearing and herdmen's life their business.

'As for their manners and usages, the family system does not rest upon firm bases; sometimes the personal name of the father, sometimes the family name of the mother serves as name of the family. Relations who are more than twelve generations distant from one another can marry. If the father dies, the son marries his later mothers (i.e. the women married by his father after his mother); if an elder brother dies, then the younger ones marry their sisters-inlaw (left behind by him). Consequently there are in the state no widows, and the families and groups multiply rapidly.

'Princes and ministers are not there set up; Magistracies also there are not. But the most energetic separate from their families and become leaders, while the weaker constitute the people, dependants and underlings; they plunder and overpower each other mutually, and their power depends upon crude strength. For murder and manslaughter recompense is paid, but other restrictions and prohibitions there are not.

'The weapons are, in the mountains and valleys, the long ones (lances, etc.), but on the plains the short (bows). The inhabitants cannot hold out for a long time, but seek to succeed by sudden incursions. Death in fighting counts as luck, death through sickness ill-luck.

'Against cold and privation they are hardened like beasts; even their women in childbirth do not shelter themselves from wind and snow.²

'Their character is firm and hard, brave and wild, and this in consequence of the element metal, corresponding to the west.'

The first organization of the Ch'iang³ is ascribed to a certain Wu-i-Yüan-chien (De Groot, Bu-ik-wan-kiĕm), a fugitive from China,⁴ who after some adventures settled between the three

¹ De Groot, ii, pp. 185-6; cf. Wylie, pp. 425-6.

² An instance of this in Tafel, ii, p. 109, who states that on religious grounds the women avoid passing the period in the tent, where the cooking is done.

³ The following account is derived from Wylie, pp. 432 sqq., with references to De Groot, ii, pp. 194 sqq.

4 This trait seems to be normal in the Chinese accounts of the origins of foreign states. rivers (Hoang-ho, Su-ki = Tz'u-chih, and Hong = Huang). He was welcomed by the Ch'iang tribes and made their chief. He introduced among them agriculture and cattle-rearing, they having previously been only hunters. The chieftaincy remained with his descendants.

The expression wu-i, bu-ik, is said to mean, in the Ch'iang language, 'serf', that having been Yüan-chien's original status. If so, it may correspond to Tibetan g-yog, for which a variant b-yog would have analogies.1 If so, it is the earliest attested common noun in the language. The Hong = Huang river, which is stated2 to have been a tributary of the Hoang-ho, is evidently, in view of the subsequent history, the Ta-t'ung-ho,3 including perhaps also its affluent, the Hsi-ning river.

In the time of Yüan-chien's great-grandson Jên (De Groot, Dsim) an uncle of the latter, by name Chiung (De Groot, Gong), being alarmed by the power of the Chinese, left, along with his family and dependants, 'the Tz'u-chih and the bending of the Hoang-ho' and fled westwards several thousand li, beyond all communication with the other Ch'iang. Afterwards the descendants of these, or of the Ch'iang generally, were divided into several tribes, which departed whither they would. One of these stocks was the 'Yak'4 tribe, being the Yüeh-sui Ch'iang, another the White Horse⁵ stock, the Ch'iang of Kuang-han, a third the 'Mixed (or Three) Wolves' Ch'iang, of Wu-tu. These particulars are evidently meant to mark off certain branches of the Ch'iang people, which had a separate history and a remote situation; these branches will be mentioned again infra,

Jên and his younger brother Wu remained in the Hong = Huang country, having respectively nine and seventeen sons. from whom descended as many tribes or clans. This was the beginning of the growth and prosperity of the Ch'iang.

Yen (De Groot, Gien), a son of Jen, c. 360-337 B.C., was extremely bold and heroic, and his descendants among the Ch'iang were called the Yen tribe. In the thirteenth generation

Bushell, op. cit., p. 519; see infra, p. 47 n 3.

4 Li-niu (De Groot, Li-gu): Yüeh-sui is stated (De Groot, ii, p. 21) to belong to the region of Ning-yuan in S. Ssu-ch'uan.

Cf. supra, p. 35, and infra, pp. 243, 290. ² Wylie, p. 433 n. 2. This is patent in the statement of the T'ang Annals reproduced by

^{*} Pih-ma (De Groot, Pe'-ma).

⁶ Ts'an-lang (De Groot, Sam-long). See Herrmann, Atlas, pp. 22-3.

from Yüan-chien, during the period 48–32 s.c., came Shao-tang (De Groot, Sio-tong), who was in like manner bold and courageous, and his descendants bore accordingly the tribal (or clan) name Shao-tang.

We are not at present able to state the Ch'iang forms of the names Li-niu = Li-gu, Pai-ma = Pe'-ma, Ts'an-lang = Samlong, which are professedly Chinese, or to ascertain whether the latter are really translations, or only perversions, of the originals. And the same applies to two other tribes, Fêng-yang = Hongjong and Lao-chieh = Lo-tsu, mentioned in connexion with events of the year 63 B.C. But a Seen-tsze = Shan-chieh, Samtsia, or Siem-tsu, tribe, defeated in the period 48-32 B.C., may have a name identical with that of the Samsa, who occupy the southeastern corner² of the Go-lok country, and Lo-tsu suggests a river name, which conceivably might be the Lo-tschu, a tributary of the Ta-hsia.3 Shao-tang = Sio-tong, which continually recurs in the struggles of the first to second centuries A.D., looks very like Zo-than, a place-name4 in the Koko-nor region, mentioned in the Tibetan Chronicle. The Yen = Gien tribe can now be more definitely located.

In the period 155–141 B.C.⁵ one Yen chief requested to be entrusted with the defence of the fortified western frontier of Lung-hsi; accordingly he was transferred with his people to the districts (Ti[k]-tao, Ngan(An)-ku, Lin-t'ao, Te(Ti)-tao, Ch'iang-tao), all which places were on the line of the lower T'ao river.⁶

In 111 B.c.⁷ we first hear of the Hsien-ling (Sien-lien) Ch'iang, whose name is, doubtless, preserved in that of Hsi-lin, or Hsi-ning,⁸ and who thenceforward play the leading role among the Ch'iang. Alarmed by the Chinese advance in Kan-su, which interposed a wedge between them and the Hsiung-nu, whom they had previously acknowledged as suzerains, they made an incursion

Wylie, p. 435; De Groot, ii, p. 197.

South of the Min-shan: see d'Ollone, pp. 226, 253; Tafel, ii, pp. 298-9 n.
 Futterer, i, pp. 391, 398 (Lö-tsche): Tafel seems to identify his Lö-tschü (ii, pp. 299, 301) with the Tao-ho.

4 Identified by Chavannes, Documents sur les Tou-kiue occidentaux (p. 260 n. 1) with a T'u-yū-hun town, Sho-tun, taken by the Turks in 556 A.D.

Wylie, p. 435; De Groot, ii, p. 197.

⁶ See Wylie and De Groot, ibid., and De Groot, 1, pp. 21, 41.

7 Wylie, p. 435; De Groot, ii, p. 197.

Tibetan Zi-lin. The Sien river (De Groot, ii, p. 207) may be the Tat'ung-ho, if not the Hsi-ning river (Hsi-ho), its tributary, perhaps not yet distinguished therefrom.

into Chinese territory. After their defeat the Chinese instituted the office of 'Ch'iang-guarding Deputy-Protector' for the general surveillance of the Ch'iang, who thereupon abandoned the region of the Huang = Hong-river (Ta-t'ung-ho) and settled on both sides of the 'Western Sea' (Hsi-hai, the Koko-nor) and the Salt Lake (Dabasun-nor). The Chinese thereupon built boundary fortifications along the hills, perhaps on the line of the abovementioned branch of the Great Wall, thereby marking off an administration area, which they perhaps maintained down to the period of the Tibetan wars, when it had the official name Shanchou.²

During the period 73-48 B.C.3 the Ch'iang recrossed the (Upper) Huang = Hong river and occupied lands to the east of it; and this perhaps accounts for the fact that at the time of the great revolt in 63 B.c. Yen = Gien people of that area play, together with another people named Han, a part in the strategy of the Chinese generals. On that occasion,4 while the Chinese were proposing to advance up the Hoang-ho from the Lan-chou region, the Governor of Chiu-ch'uan (Su-chou) professed to apprehend Han raids in his own district and proposed to make an expedition over the mountains into Han and Yen territory; this he was ultimately (61 B.C.) authorized to do, his troops being supplied in part by the Governor of Tun-huang and the local (native) chief of Chiu-ch'uan. From this it is evident that the Han territory was farther north than that of the Yen; and confirmation is apparent in the fact that the Han were expected to make an inroad upon Tun-huang5 as well as Chiu-ch'uan, and in the further fact that the Han people was the last to be reached by the army from the Lan-chou region.

The Han are styled a Ch'iang people.⁶ We have no further information concerning them; ⁷ but it may be conjectured that they were the original occupants of the Ta-t'ung-ho valley, and that their name was originally the same as that of the river, namely Hon, the two names having come to the Chinese at different dates and in different ways. For in Tibetan times there was a

¹ Supra, p. 12 n. 5, infra, p. 47 n. 3.

⁴ De Groot, ii, pp. 199, 202-16.

Bushell, p. 528 (17), p. 540 (1), gives Hsiningfu as the equivalent.
 Wylie, p. 436; De Groot, ii, p. 199.

⁵ Ibid., pp. 209, 212.
⁷ They were perhaps different from the Han tribe of Wylie, p. 469, whose territory was elsewhere.

place named *Ḥon-caň-do*, in 'Skyi', the name of which should mean 'Hon-city-land' and should contain a tribal name *Ḥon* which certainly existed.¹ This place, whence authority was exercised over Śa-cu = Tun-huang, must have been in Bde and was possibly the Bde-gams mentioned *supra*. Since *caň* is found representing the Chinese *ch'êng*, 'city', 'fortress', this place may be identical with Hung-ch'êng, which the maps still record on the lower Ta-t'ung-ho.²

From the above consideration and from the circumstance that the Han tribe, which later also is mentioned in connexion with Ch'iang raids in the years A.D. 141-2,3 is pointedly distinguished from the Yen = Gien, it seems likely that, though Ch'iang, it did not belong to the Yen = Gien division, the descendants of Yen = Gien. In that division the leaders were the Hsien-ling = Sienlien, who occupied the vicinity of the Koko-nor and in the second half of the first century B.C. became Shao-tang4 of the Great and Little Yū Valleys. Under that designation they are frequently mentioned in the Later Han Annals as the leaders in most of the conflicts with the Chinese during the first two centuries A.D. The usual theatre of the Ch'iang incursions was the Lung-hsi province and the vassal state of Chin-ch'ing:6 and since the Seenling tribe is mentioned as having made raids as far as Lin-t'ao,? which was in the vicinity of Min-chou, at the bend of the T'ao river, it is clear that during this period the Hoang-ho did not constitute a barrier between the tribes to its north and those to its south.

In the succeeding periods other tribes, apparently belonging to Amdo, are occasionally named, and it is possible that, as time advanced, new units acquired some prominence; but other information concerning them is lacking, and the names in the Chinese transcription are unsignificant. But in the northern and western, Tsaidam, part of the country there was a Ch'iang people unconnected with those with which we have been concerned and known

¹ Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, pp. 48, 301.

² See Filchner's map, h 8 (Hung-ku-tschöng, in which ku = 'ancient').

³ Wylie, p. 469.

bid., pp. 436-7; De Groot, ii, p. 199 (Sio-tong).

⁵ Wylie, pp. 440, 450, 462, 467, and under the names of the successive chiefs passim.

Represented by the present district and city of Chin, south of Lan-chou. Ibid., pp. 433 n. 2, 436 n 1 (Kin-ching), De Groot, i, p. 41 (Kin-tš'ing).

⁷ Wylie, p. 439.

to the Chinese from early times. This people, mentioned in the Former Han Annals by a name variously transcribed as Jo-kiang (Wylie), Ni-kiang (F. W. K. Müller), and Dža-k'iong (De Groot),2 disappears in later times almost completely; a contingent of it served under the Chinese in the campaign of 63-62 B.C. On the basis of precise statements in the Annals it is universally recognized that the Jo-Ch'iang occupied the Tsaidam region and also the southern slopes of the Altyn-tagh and Kuen-lun mountains as far west as the longitude of Khotan.3 But also north of the mountains they were the people first met to the west outside the Yang frontier gate, in the region of Tun-huang; hence it is probable that the oasis of Nan-hu, about 80 miles west of Tun-huang, was in their territory and that by the valley of the Tang-ho, which debouches in the vicinity of Nan-hu, they communicated with the Sirtin district in the extreme north of the Tsaidam area. Farther west, at Charklik, also, in the Shan-shan kingdom, they were found across the main route to Khotan. Thus both the route from the Koko-nor to Tun-huang and that to Lob-nor passed through Jo-Ch'iang land; and, as the Koko-nor route was the easiest means of reaching Lop-nor from the Chinese capital, Ch'ang-an, it is likely that many travellers took that way. Moreover, there was local connexion with the Lob-nor state of Shan-shan, whence the Jo-Ch'iang obtained cereals.4 In their territory also, in the Gass district, are the Bokalik mountains, with the gold mines of Boka,5 which from Cer-cen in Chinese Turkestan, by the route over the Tokuz-dawan and the 'Valley of the Winds'—a route explored in modern times by Prejevalsky, Carey, Hedin, and others-are still visited by Turkestan people. At the end of the seventh century A.D. the Tibetans established a post, Tshal-byi, somewhere between Gass and Charklik, whence they controlled the Lob-nor district; and thither in about A.D. 746 came refugee Buddhist monks after a desperate journey over the mountains (Tokuz-

¹ Berlin Academy Sitzungsberichte, 1918, pp. 570 sqq. ² ii, p. 52.
³ This is proved by references in the Former Han Annals, giving accounts of the states along the southern route in Chinese Turkestan (translated by Wylie, Journal of the Anthropological Institute, x (1881), pp. 20–73, and after him by De Groot, ii, pp. 52–69). Cf. maps collected by Professor Herrmann in Hedin, Southern Tibet, vol. vii, map X. See also Müller,

⁴ Wylie, op. cit., 1881, p. 23; De Groot, ii, p. 53.

⁵ Visited in the 13th century by William Bouchier, of Paris (Sandberg, The Exploration of Tibet, p. 21).

dawān) from Khotan.¹ A Chinese authority informs us that T'uyū-hun people were constantly reaching the Shan-shan kingdom by that route.²

The Jo-Ch'iang, however, are never mentioned, and, if they continued to exist, it must have been under another name. It seems possible to point to that name. We owe to Professor Pelliot3 the proof that the T'u-yü-hun people are stated in Chinese writings to be called also A-ch'ai, and the observation that the name is identical with that of the Ha-za, mentioned in the Tibetan Chronicle and other documents belonging to the seventh and eighth centuries A.D., one of them being the above mentioned narrative by a T'u-yü-hun queen. It is, however, not at all likely that in addition to the name T'u-yü-hun and the variant form Tho-gon. independently attested in the Tun-huang region,5 the same people should have been known also as Ha-za; and, furthermore, the Ha-za are not infrequently mentioned at dates later than A.D. 663. when the T'u-vü-hun were expelled from Amdo.6 Moreover, one of the Tu-vu-hun kings, in the early part of the fifth century (417-) A.D. (Bichurin, i. p. 78) was named A-ch'ai7-long after the word was, according to Professor Pelliott, first known as a tribal name-and it is quite unlikely that he should have received the name of his own people, though the reverse process is familiar and exemplified in the case of T'u-yū-hun itself. Professor Pelliot holds that the name belonged originally to some mixed tribes in the north of Kan-su, which became included in the T'u-vü-hun dominion. It seems, however, much more appropriate to substitute for 'mixed tribes in the north of Kan-su' the name of Jo-Ch'iang, Ni-kiang, Dža-k'iong, Possibly the majority of the subjects of the T'u-vü-hun chiefs, whose power extended through Jo-Ch'iang territory to Sha-chou on the one hand and the Lob-nor state on the other, and who had entered the Koko-nor region only as an invading tribe, were of Jo-Ch'iang race, and in the Sha-chou

¹ See Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, pp. 119-25. The name Tshal-byi ('Little Wood'?) was probably pre-Tibetan.

² See L. Giles, B.S.O.S., vi, p. 830.

² Journal Asiatique, 1912, ii, p. 522; 1914, ii, p. 144; T'oung-pao, 1920-1, pp. 323-5.

^{*} 阿 柴. * Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 367.

⁴ Op. cit., i, p. 192, ii (Index).

⁷ 阿 新 (or 封). Professor Haloun has kindly furnished this spelling, as well as exact translations of the various ancient Chinese statements concerning the origin of the dynasty and the dynastic lists.

region, as well as in the Lob-nor kingdom, there were in the seventh to eighth centuries A.D., Ha-za people, 1 just as at the time of the beginning of the Christian era there were Jo-Ch'iang people. There is no reason to suppose that the latter ceased to exist; if not

as Ha-za people, under what alias did they survive?

The question is accordingly not exclusively one of identity in name. But on that ground also, if De Groot's transcription dža (= ja) is correct—and he quotes the authority of Jěn Ši-ku (Yen Shih-ku, A.D. 579-645), the commentator on the Former Han Annals—it would correspond to the second syllable of Ha-ža, as also to that of A-ch'ai in its original pronunciation. As regards the omission of the first syllable Ha, we may refer to Professor Pelliot's remark concerning frequent Chinese transcriptions in which an initial a is suppressed.²

If this explanation is correct, i.e. if the Ḥa-za were primarily a Tsaidam people, being identical with the Jo-Ch'iang, this may help to account for the name of the Tsaidam district Hajjar and also for the fact that on a route from Charklik to the Tsaidam there is, on the Turkestan side of the mountains, a place named Hashak(lik), which name recurs farther in the mountains south of Khotan. For we know that there were scattered bodies of Jo-Ch'iang people, who would be Ḥa-za, along the southern border of Chinese

Turkestan.3

Thus in regard to the history of the Ch'iang people in general the Jo-Ch'iang would have some importance. And this is emphasized by the fact that they become known to the Chinese at an early date and through not the same intermediaries as did the Koko-nor Ch'iang. They may have been neighbours of Chinese Turkestan from very early times.

With one exception, that of the oft discussed 'Little Yüeh-chih'⁴ of the northern parts of the Nan-shan, a small remnant of a Kan-su people which made a forced migration westwards about 170 B.C., we have now mentioned all the ancient populations of Amdo and Tsaidam and found them all to have been Ch'iang. After the expedition of 63–62 B.C., and the above-mentioned Shan-chieh =

T'oung-pao, 1920-1, pp. 324-5.
 See Müller, loc. cit. (p. 44).

¹ Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, pp. 17-18, 25-9, 35, 343.

⁴ Particulars of these, translated from the *Later Han Annals*, are given by Wylie, pp. 474–5. On their probable identity with the Hu frequently mentioned in conjunction with the Ch'iang (both 'of Huang-chung') see p. 47 n. 3.

Sam-tsia raid during the period 48–33 B.C., there were several decades of peace with the Chinese, and the Chinese prestige in the region may have reached its zenith in the first decade A.D., during the time of the usurper Emperor Wang Mang, who

'caused his wishes to be made known in translation to the Ch'iang and commanded them to pay tribute jointly; thereby for the first time the country on the Western Lake (Koko-nor) was opened and changed into a frontier province, wherein were established five districts. Since then on the lakes of the borderland also the signal fire of a watch-house had the next in sight.'²

The Chinese had previously established the above (pp. 12, 42) mentioned fortified frontier, crossing the Nan-shan south of Liang-chou and embracing the Hsi-ning district in a curve which almost reached Ho-chou; and this they afterwards maintained;³

Wylie, pp. 436-7; De Groot, ii, p. 199.

De Groot, ii, p. 200; Wylie, p. 437.

⁴ Concerning the beginnings of these fortifications in 111 s.c. see Wylie, pp. 435-6; De Groot, ii, p. 197. The district within the fortifications was designated Huang-chung (Wylie, pp. 434-6 and passim), which the Chinese identify with Hsi-ning. It is the district of the Huang (De Groot, ii, pp. 194, &c., Hong) river, which is certainly the Ta-t'ung-ho, the name being retained in T'ang times (Bushell, p. 519) and still persisting (Rockhill, p. 42 n.): it may include the tributary Hsi-ning-ho, which, however, may be the Sičn river of De Groot, ii, p. 207.

That the fortifications and Huang-chung (which De Groot, ii, p. 194, &c., fails to recognize) did during the first two centuries A.D. include the Hsi-ning district is proved by the frequent references in the Later Han Annals (Wylie, pp. 444, 446–50, 457–8, 466–8, 470–2) to the 'Keang and Hoo' (Ch'iang and Hu) of Huang-chung; for these resided within the frontier, and were sometimes led against the Ch'iang outside, e.g. in A.D. 96 (p. 447),

when:

'She Ch'ung raised the Keang and Hoo of Huang-chung and marched beyond the fortresses to attack Me-t'ang in the Great and Little Yu

Valleys.'

Similarly in a.D. 101 (p. 449), 135 (p. 466), 139 (p. 467). That the 'Ch'iang and Hu of Huang-chung' were the immediate neighbours of the 'Ch'iang of the Great and Little Yū Valleys' is evident both from the geographical situation and from the references to 'the roads by which the Ch'iang and Hu hold intercourse [with the Shao-tang tribes] at the barrier' (p. 400) and to the Shao-tang tribes 'enticing the Ch'iang and Hu' (p. 467): when the Ch'iang and Hu rebelled, as they sometimes did (e.g. in a.D. 86, p. 444), they began by going 'beyond the fortifications'—so also others and at other times (pp. 442, 448–9, 452, 462, 470).

The term Hu must have been used by the Annalist in its familiar signification of a Chinese-Turkestan people. It must denote the 'Little Yüeh-chih', since during the first two centuries a.p. no other Central-Asian people was resident in the Ta-t'ung-ho area or anywhere else in Amdo. In fact, the Annals speak (Wylie, p. 474) of 'the Getae [Yüeh-chih] barbarians of

also there was in Kan-su, to the south of the present Lan-chou, the vassal state of Chin-ch'ing (De Groot, Kin-tš'ing), founded in 60 B.C. and peopled with deported Ch'iang who had submitted; it was made the residence of a 'Protector of the Ch'iang'.

About the end of Wang Mang's reign 'the barbarians on all sides advanced into the empire'; and down to about A.D. 170 the Ch'iang border was the scene of almost incessant forays and punitive expeditions. It is unnecessary to retail the disjointed particulars of these occurrences; but an understanding of the Ch'iang problem may be facilitated by the following general observations:

 A continuous leadership on the part of the Shao-tang people of the 'Great and Little Yū Valleys' is attested by the Later Han Annals, which largely follow the fortunes of a succession of chiefs

belonging to that tribe.3

2. During the first half of the period the usual scene of the Ch'iang incursions was the Lung-hsi province and especially the state of Chin-ch'ing,4 against which, as peopled by their tamed kinsfolk, the free Ch'iang may have maintained a special spite. Later some more northerly parts of Kan-su, such as Liang-chou, Kan-chou, and Su-chou, come more into play, and we may conceive that, as the south became more settled, the trouble moved northwards. In a.D. 87 intrusion from the west, i.e. over the Nanshan, was apprehended in Kan-chou and Su-chou (p. 444). In A.D. 111 (p. 456) the Ch'iang were attacked in the Shan-tan mountains (near Kan-chou); in 120 and 121 (pp. 462-3) there were struggles in the Kan-chou region; in 141 (p. 469) a raid on Liang-chou, in which various tribes took part; in 162 (p. 472) Liang-chou, Kan-chou, and Su-chou were attacked; in 167 (p. 472) Liang-chou. We can understand therefore why the Han tribe of the Upper Ta-t'ung-ho, who seem also to have had settlements on the Kan-su side of the Nan-shan, and also the 'Ch'iang and Hu (i.e. Little Yüeh-chih) of Huang-chung', i.e. the lower Ta-t'ung-ho valley, frequently come in for mention,5 as do also, on the Chinese side, the governors of the three garrison cities and

Huang-chung' and proceed to give an account of them, which, with much other information is fully expounded by Professor Haloun in ZDMG., 1937, Zur Ue-tei-Frage, esp. pp. 275 sqq.

2 De Groot, ii. p. 216.

2 Wylie, pp. 445-51.

De Groot, ii, p. 216.
 Ibid., pp. 437, 440, 450-1, &c.

Ibid., pp. 438-40, 445-6, 454, 467-8, 472.
 Ibid., pp. 447, 449, 450, 457, 466-9, 471.

the 'Too-leaou general'. Nevertheless the T'ao river frontier continues to be prominent, and it seems likely that the main line of approach to Liang-chou was via the lower Hoang-ho valley and those of the P'ing-fan river or Charing-gol.

3. It is not to be understood that the districts under direct Chinese rule had during this period a Chinese population. It not infrequently happened that a tribe, or portion of a tribe, came in and submitted, becoming a 'patriotic adherent tribe',² in which case it was sometimes deported elsewhere, even as far into the interior as 'the three Metropolitan Provinces'. The instances of the vassal state Chin-ch'ing and of the Yen = Giĕn tribesmen settled along the lower T'ao river are only typical. These tamed Ch'iang might then be employed in resisting or attacking the free tribes, and especially would this be the case with the 'Ch'iang and Hu of Huang-chung', i.e. of the frontier district enclosed by the branch of the Great Wall. But, on the other hand, the tribes settled within the empire were apt to revolt, in which case they sometimes migrated 'outside the fortifications'.

4. Another factor complicating the ethnographical situation is the deportations effected by the Chinese in their early conquests. Thus, when the districts of Wu-wei (Liang-chou) and Chiu-ch'uan (Su-chou) were founded, the previous Hun-sha population had been partly destroyed and partly removed, and people were transferred there to fill the gap; 4 so also in districts south of the Hoang-ho; and in 108 B.C. Chiu-ch'uan received further accessions of the Te of Wu-tu. 5 So again, when the Ch'iang abandoned

Since the General appears to be the head of the Chinese military forces connected with Liang-chou and the southern parts of Kan-su, it seems that Too-leavu must be equivalent to the To-lehu of the 'To-lehu Three Tigers' (military officers) who during Tibetan times (JRAS. 1927, p. 550) commanded the region of Liang-chou. Too-leavu = To-lehu is therefore a place in the Liang-chou region and may accordingly be the Tolan, northwest of Liang-chou, on the grand route.

¹ In a.D. 76 'the former Too-leaou General was again appointed Keangassisting Deputy-Governor, and dwelt in Gan-e' (p. 442). This associates the 'Too-leaou General' with Liang-chou, since in a.D. 33 (p. 438) 'for the hordes in Leang-chou a Keang-guarding Deputy-Protector was appointed'. In a.D. 116 (p. 460), 122 (p. 463), 136 (p. 466), there are further mentions of the 'Too-leaou General'. The 'Too-leaou General' and garrison were first established in 86 B.C. and seem to have been made permanent about twenty years later (see Parker in *The China Review*, xxi, p. 262, n. 89).

Instances in Wylie, pp. 443, 446, 449, 451, 463-4, 469, 470-1, 473-4.

e.g. ibid., pp. 442, 444, 452, 462, 468, 470, 471-2.
 De Groot, i, pp. 126, 146; ii, p. 49.

⁵ Ibid., ii, p. 198.

'Huang-chung', leaving the land west of the Hoang-ho 'empty',

people were gradually removed there to occupy it.1

5. In the free areas also the Chinese punitive expeditions with their thousands of decapitations and captures of hundreds of thousands of cattle, though they do not raise the same ethnographical problems, wrought great devastation, concerning which it is worth while to quote from the summary wherewith the author of the Later Han Annals concludes this chapter of his work:²

'When the tribes were somewhat weakened, the imperial forces attacked them, and, they being still more weakened by the numbers of dead and wounded, the imperial troops followed up the pursuit.... The settlements were cut off from the mountains a hundred thousand feet high.' And skinless bones were strewn on the tops of the loftiest precipices, beyond expression or calculation. There were no more than one or two in a hundred of the Jung⁴ able to skulk away among the grass and stones, and so evade the lances and arrows of the troops.'

Sometimes a chief with the remnant of a tribe retired to remote regions; thus in a.d. 93:5

*Kuan Fan then sent troops beyond the fortresses, who attacked Me-t'ang (the Shaou-tang leader) in the Great and Little Yū Valleys, where they caught the chief, and took more than eight hundred captives, and collected several tens of thousands of bushels of wheat. After this the imperialists, meeting together from all sides, remained at the Great River (Hoang-ho), where they built a city, constructed large vessels, and erected a bridge over the river, wishing to carry over the troops to attack Me-t'ang. Me-t'ang then conducted his settlement to a distance along the windings of the Tz'u-chih river.

In A.D. 100:9

'Me-t'ang was reduced to a condition of weakness, the men of his tribe not amounting to a thousand in number. He made a distant journey to the head of the Tz'u-chih river, where he raised the Keang and took up his residence.'

² Ibid., pp. 477-8.

³ The 'height' of mountains being the length of an ascent.

* Sc. barbarians.

* Ibid., pp. 446–7.

⁶ Sc. beyond the branch of the Great Wall.

On the Tz'u-chih river see supra, pp. 37–8.

⁹ Wylie, p. 449.

Wylie, p. 436; De Groot, ii, p. 198. Later instances in Wylie, pp. 244, 439, 441, 448-9, 455, &c.

Mentioned again p. 448. Is this the Hung-chi Bridge, north-west of Ho-chou (Bushell, pp. 519 and 534 (72))?

Apropos of an occurrence in the year A.D. 194, the Annals observe that1

'The descendants of Yüan-chien (the legendary first king) were divided into a hundred and fifty tribes. Nine of these lived about the head of the Tz'u-chih river and westward and to the north of Shuh and Han (Ssū-ch'uan). The number of persons is not stated by former historians. Only the Ts'an-lang of Wu-tu had several thousand ablebodied troops. Fifty-two of the tribes dwindled away in numbers, till they were unable to maintain their integrity. They were divided and dispersed, attaching their settlements to other bodies. Some were utterly destroyed, leaving no posterity. Some were led away into distant lands."

Despite all this the author admits that the Ch'iang, who, he says³,

'showed much heart in their national customs and in their martial bearing they were active and turbulent'

could not be rooted out; he ascribes this to the exhaustion of the troops and refers to the financial burdens of the empire. It seems likely that much of the Ch'iang country was inaccessible to large bodies of troops, and that, as in the case of the Go-lok, a permanent control was impossible. The losses of the tribes, who were free from the checks upon growth of population at present operant in Tibet, namely, polyandry⁴ and Buddhist monachism, were quickly repaired. The Amdo states, Ch'iang and T'u-yū-hun, continued to be a trouble to the Chinese empire, and they passed on the struggle as an heritage to their Tibetan successors.

The unflattering picture which the Chinese give of the usages and morals of the Ch'iang has already been mentioned. But possibly no society of human beings is without 'literature' of some kind. In the case of one tribe on the Ssū-ch'uan frontier we hear of music and dances, and of poetry, whereof specimens, 'Songs of the Distant Barbarians', were sent to the Chinese court; in conversation

¹ Ibid., p. 473.

³ The passage continues with a reference to the Chung tribe as the most powerful and to the respective numbers.

³ Ibid., p. 477.

⁴ According to Rockhill (pp. 80, 190) neither the Go-lok nor the nomads generally are polygamous. Baber states (p. 97) that 'polyandry prevails in the uplands': so too Edgar, *The Marches of the Mantze*, p. 67. Both Edgar and Tafel (ii, p. 282) deny polyandry in the Rgyal-ron, while Rockhill restricts it in Tibet to agricultural districts (p. 211).

they were fond of comparisons.¹ Probably, therefore, they had the interminable stories and antithetic verses and songs noted by the Abbé Huc, Rockhill, and Tafel among the Go-lok and other rude peoples of Tibet.² The statement³ that 'their kings and marquises had some knowledge of literature' would, however, refer to a smattering of Chinese. In the fourth and fifth centuries A.D., when in Kan-su and Central China there were some dynasties of 'Tibetan', i.e. Ch'iang, origin, these were, no doubt, completely Chinese in culture, and the princes had in some cases received a thorough indoctrination into the spirit and principles of Confucianism.⁴

THE EARLY CH'IANG, THE TE AND THE TIK

MENTION has been made of Ch'iang tribes, the 'Yak' tribe, the 'White Horse' tribe, and the 'Three (or mixed) Wolves' tribe, which, though descended from the first king and his great-grandson Jên = Dsim, or the latter's brother Chiung = Gong, could not be described as Amdo Ch'iang. They had a separate existence and history, of which the Later Han Annals supply some particulars. The 'Yak' tribe of Yüeh-sui (Li-niu, De Groot Li-yu), in habited the region south of Ya-chou, in Ssū-ch'uan, and the 'White Horse' tribe of Kuang-han likewise belonged to Ssū-ch'uan, being in the region of Ch'eng-tu, the present capital of the province. These two are sometimes mentioned in connexion with risings in the

² Huc and Gabet, ii, p. 82; Rockhill, Diary, pp. 168-9; Tafel, ii, pp. 158-60 (Ge-sar legend).

³ Wylie, p. 242.

4 On these Sinified or Confucianized barbarians see Franke, op. cit. ii, pp. 63, 89 (Fu kien), 94, &c. Professor Franke's use of the term 'Tibetans' (pp. 60, 61, 63, 89, 183) or 'Tangut or Tibetan' (pp. 94, &c.) should not mislead. None of the persons or dynasties can have been Tibetan or Tangut in any ordinary acceptation: they will have been Ch'iang. Before the 7th century a.b. perhaps no single 'Tibetan' had ever visited China; and the 'Tangut' people did not exist, except as Ch'iang, before the 9th century at the earliest.

The ruling classes among the T'u-yū-hun, who also are described by the Chinese (Bushell, pp. 527–8 (11); Rockhill, pp. 335–7; Bichurin, i, pp. 97–8) as uncivilized, had likewise, according to the T'ang Annals, an adequate knowledge of (Chinese) literature.

Wylie, pp. 434, 473; De Groot, ii, p. 195.

Wylie, pp. 238-9, 246. For a mention of 'the hymns of the Ti-peoples' see Franke, Geschichte des Chinesischen Reiches, ii, p. 158. See also infra, p. 61.

Wylie, pp. 225-6, 243-4, 434, 466 (rebellion in A.D. 136), 471 and 474 (raid on Kuang-han), 473 (submission in A.D. 37); De Groot, ii, p. 195.

districts to which they belonged. The Ts'an-lang of Wu-tu, occupying an isolated district in the southernmost part of Kan-su, south of the Wei river and the Pe-lung mountains which form its southern boundary, have this distinction, that in the T'ang Annals² there is an account of a Te state, which under a Lyang dynasty existed from about A.D. 296 to about A.D. 506, when it became the district Tung-i-chou. These Te became known to the Chinese in 111 B.C., and from 108 B.C. various rebellions on their part are mentioned. The several tribes of barbarians mentioned as 'outside' the Shuh (Ssū-ch'uan) region, belonged perhaps to the area of what became later the 'Women's Kingdom'.

The Wu-tu state is not alone in receiving the appellation Te. The same term is applied in the Later Han Annals⁴ to the 'White Horse' Ch'iang of Kuang-han and also to the 'Yen-mang' and 'Tso-tu' of north-western Ssū-ch'uan, the former of these two belonging to the region of Mao on the Min river and the latter being to the south-west of that tribe. All these were of Te race.⁵

'In these mountains (sc. the mountains adjacent to north-western Ssū-ch'uan) there were six tribes of Eastern Barbarians, seven tribes of Keang and nine tribes of Te. Each tribe had its territorial settlement.'4

The two names, Te⁷ and Ch'iang, in conjunction or in alternation, carry us back to times far anterior to those which we have been considering and even to that of the first, legendary, Ch'iang ruler, Wu-i-Yüan-chien. In connexion with a repression of the Ch'iang during the period 1324–1265 B.C. the Later Han Annals⁸ quote from the Shih-ching the statement that

'Since then none of the Te and Ch'iang has dared not to come here with tribute, and none has had the courage not to appear before the king.'

The Ch'iang are mentioned again in connexion with the period 1122-1116 B.C., after which neither they nor the Te seem in early

Wylie, pp. 434, 439 (rebellion in a.D. 36 and in a.D. 56), 453 (assembly in Pih-te, a.D. 108), 473 (several thousand able-bodied troops), 474 (submission of those outside the Kuang-han barrier, a.D. 108); De Groot, ii, p. 198 (risings, in 108 and 80 B.C., of the Te of Wu-tu), 201 (rising, in 86-73 B.C., of the Te of Wu-tu).

² Biehurin, i, pp. 99-109.

⁴ Ibid., pp. 226, 243-4.

⁶ Ibid., p. 242.

^{*} Ibid., p. 426; De Groot, ii, p. 187.

³ e.g. Wylie, pp. 225, 474.

⁵ Ibid., pp. 225-6.

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times to recur. They may, however, lurk under the more general designation of 'Jung of the West' (1150–1123 B.C., 1001–947 B.C.)

and sometimes perhaps simply of 'Jung'.1

More frequently we hear of the Ti[k]² (De Groot Tik, Terrien de Lacouperie Tek). At the close of the early Hia period (2205–1766 B.C.) one sovereign is said to have fled to the 'Jung and Tik',³ and the same conjunction recurs in 1154–1123 B.C., 1001–947 B.C., 878–827 B.C., 770–720 B.C., 635–627 B.C.⁴

The Tik are also frequently mentioned by themselves. But it seems that we must leave out of account the 'Red Tik' and 'White Tik', who belonged respectively to the west of Shan-hsi and farther south in Ho-nan and Kiang-su. For their position was the result of a deportation, since we are informed that:

'King Wen of Tsin (circa 635 B.C.) conquered the Džong and Tik and settled them on the [Chinese side of the] western (Huang-)ho between the Huan [Hun] and the Lo' [rivers].'6

The earliest situation of the Tik seems to have been in the region of the Ching and the Ch'i and Chü rivers, tributaries reaching the Wei river in the region north of the present Hsi-ngan-fu.⁷ Afterwards they advanced far to the east, at times even as far south as the Wei river. To the west of their original settlements were the Lung mountains, which in later times formed the eastern boundary of the Lung-hsi province. In connexion with a date 659–620 B.C.⁸ we are told that:

'Accordingly at that time there were to the west of the Lung mountains the Hun Džong of Mien-tšu' and the Džong of Tik and of Huan.'

The Lung-hsi district was constituted in the period after 272 B.C., ¹⁰ down to which time the region west of the Lung mountains was apparently independent Tik country. A notice belonging to the period 770–720 B.C. states ¹¹ that 'At the sources of the Wei were

- 1 For the above particulars see Wylie, pp. 426-7; De Groot, ii, pp. 187-8.
 2 ** De Groot, i, p. 4.
- Wylie, pp. 427-30; De Groot, i, pp. 4 sqq., ii, pp. 187-92.

⁵ Ibid., i, pp. 19-32.

6 Ibid., p. 19. Further notices of the wars with these 'Red' and 'White' Tik, i, pp. 25-32.

Ibid., pp. 4-5, the Ch'i being a tributary of the Chü.

⁸ Ibid., p. 21.

Region of the present Min-chou.

Wylie, p. 432; De Groot, i, p. 34, ii, p. 193.
 Wylie, p. 429; De Groot, ii, p. 190.

Jung of Tik and Huan, of Kwei and Ki'; and so also at a later period, c. 400 B.C.¹ The Tik seem to have extended as far west as the lower T'ao river; for their name is still preserved in that of the district Ti(k)-tao, shown on the maps as bordering on that river; along with Te(Ti)-tao and Ch'iang-tao, as well as Lin-t'ao, it is mentioned² in connexion with the period 155–141 B.C., when a submitted Yen = Gien tribe was deported to those districts 'to defend the fortified (Western) frontier of Lung-hsi'. The direct Chinese administration of the frontier was not established until A.D. 124.³

In this way we find assembled on the line of the lower T'ao river the three designations Ch'iang, Te, and Tik; and from about 150 B.C. the districts coupled with their names are held for the Chinese by a subdivision of Yen = Giěn. Concerning the names Jung and Tik De Groot states (i, p. 5) that the Chinese characters representing them

'appear both perhaps to belong to the oldest that the Chinese language possesses. The Džong (Jung) of the West are mentioned in the Yü-kung, a book of the Shu-king, in regard to which it is held that it originated in the time of Yü, the founder of the Hia dynasty, who is supposed to have lived in the XXIII century B.C. . . . The "Tik of the North" meet us in a book of the Shu-king which carries us back to the time of T'ang, and so to the XVIIIth Century B.C.'

De Groot speaks of Tik as, like Jung, a general name for the foreign peoples of the west and north; that, however, does not seem to accord either with the references cited above or with the numerous others collected in pp. 4–31 of his volume i. The statements concerning the original and later seats of the Tik, the coupling of their name with that of the Jung, the distinction of 'White' and 'Red', applied to some divisions of them, and finally the expression 'Jung of Tik', i.e. 'those Jung who were Tik', show that the name involved a racial discrimination. It seems likely that the 'White' and 'Red' Tik were finally subdued in the sixth century B.C.; and with the formation of the Lung-hsi district, after 272 B.C. (supra, p. 54), the remaining Tik also passed under Chinese control. But they were still a discriminable element of the

Wylie, p. 433; De Groot, ii, p. 195.

Wylie, p. 435; De Groot, ii, p. 197; supra, p. 41.

Wylie, p. 464, 'In the autumn of 124 the region of Lung-si first extended to Teih-taou.'

^{*} De Groot, i, pp. 30-1.

population of the Ch'iang frontier; for at the time of the expedition against the Ch'iang in 63-B.C. the celebrated Chinese general in command was apprehensive of the derision of the I (= Jung) and Tik (De Groot, ii, p. 218):

'Consequently everywhere among the I and Tik prevails a spirit of depreciation of our officials in the borderlands, and now the Ch'iang give them the example of revolt.'

Concerning the Te De Groot writes as follows (ii, p. 183):

'Irrespective of the name Džong, Tik, and Hu, whereby . . . the barbarians of the north and west are designated in general, these Tibetans are in the ancient Chinese records throughout named Te and K'iong.

'It cannot be decided whether these Te and K'iong are to be understood as two actually different peoples. From the sources to be treated below it appears only that the abodes of the Te lay more to the south, those of the K'iong in the Kuku-nor region proper, and even this is not saying much, since both peoples led a nomadic or half-nomadic existence.'

The latter part of this statement is not quite borne out by the notices in the Later Han Annals. The Wu-tu country was the country of the 'Three (or mixed) Wolves' Ch'iang; yet in 108 B.C. and 80 B.C. we hear of risings of the Te of Wu-tu,1 and the dynasty of the period A.D. 296-506 is called a Te dynasty (supra, pp. 52-3). The 'White Horse' tribe of Kuang-han was, as we have seen, a branch of the Ch'iang; yet along with the Tso-tu and Yen-mang of the Ssu-ch'uan north-western border it is said to belong to the Te race;2 and in the mountains adjacent to Yen-mang there were 'six tribes of Eastern Barbarians, seven tribes of Keang, and nine tribes of Te'.3 On the line of the lower T'ao river are Tik-tao, Te-tao, and Ch'iang-tao. Moreover, it is likely that the Hong Te mentioned in the report on the campaign of 63- B.C.4 are the Te of the Hong river, the Ta-t'ung-ho, being none other than the Han and Gien, who figure in that occurrence. And the Te mentioned, along with the (Little) Yüeh-chih and the Ch'iang, as the western limit of the Right-hand Hsiung-nu king5 cannot have belonged to

¹ De Groot, ii, p. 198. ² Wylie, p. 226. ³ Ibid., p. 242. ⁴ De Groot, ii, p. 215: the Chinese characters rendered as *Hong* (i.e. *Huang*) are not identical in the two cases, but homophonic: see Karlgren, Nos. 104, 106.

De Groot, i, p. 58. Further particulars of Te peoples, largely settled in Kan-su, are supplied by the Wei-lio (trans-Chavannes, Toung-pao, 1905, pp. 521-5) mentioning resemblances to, and mixture with, the Ch'iang.

the south. Furthermore, the above-mentioned T'u-yū-hun king A-ch'ai is stated¹ to have annexed tribes of the Te and Ch'iang, who therefore cannot have been remote from the Koko-nor country.

As a solution of the problem we may venture upon the following suggestions:

- (a) The original name of these Tibeto-Burman tribes at a very early date, when along the valley of the Wei and in the region of Shuh and Han (in the modern Ssū-ch'uan) they extended far into China, was Tik or Tek.
- (b) A later, perhaps a dialectical, form of the same word² was Te, which perhaps belonged to the Amdo country and the south.
- (c) In regard to the Ch'iang we should take seriously the Chinese statement that they originated in Si-ki (Hsih-chih) or Skyi, the country east of the gorge of the Rma-chu; and we may suppose that they were an aggressive people who spread eastwards into districts originally occupied by their kinsmen, the Te, and became intermingled with them. They were, therefore, an active subdivision of the Te.

Now on the Tibetan side we have found the Hgren and their country Hgren-ro, and these may be the Ch'iang and the Ch'iang country. We have also found a country De or Bde, probably including the valley of the Ta-t'ung-ho. Perhaps we may discover in the tribal designation Gyim/Byim (p. 35 n. 5, supra) an equivalent for the name of the early Ch'iang leader Jên/Dsim (p. 40), as we have, in fact, for Sik-ki, Hsih-chih. Persistence of the names on the Tibetan side accords with other evidence, and it is in itself credible, since the names belonged to the peoples themselves. Have we any trace of Tik?

We have seen that $\operatorname{Hgre\acute{n}}=\operatorname{Ch'iang}$ properly means 'man' as opposed to other animals, and the use of the word 'man' in a national or racial sense is a phenomenon very widely instanced among uncivilized peoples. What then of Tik ? It would be a fair conjecture that that name also originally meant 'man'. Hence it is a matter of interest that the earliest known specimen of a Te, or Ch'iang, dialect, or indeed of a Tibeto-Burman sentence, namely

¹ Pei-shih, 96, 10 a-b, for which reference I am indebted to the kindness of Professor Haloun.

² It may be left to conjecture whether the change Tik > Te took place among a part of the people themselves or among Chinese who had occasion to mention them.

the above (p. 51) mentioned 'Songs of the Distant Barbarians', the Tso-tu Te of the Ssü-ch'uan border, has a word t'iek (see Karlgren's Dictionary, no. 909) in the sense of 't(ribes)man'.

THE NAM-TIG

This is not the place for an inquiry into the early ethnical conditions in Kan-su and western Kan-su, concerning, which, however, we may remark that, while it is very unlikely a priori that the plains and the sand-deserts of Kan-su should have been occupied by Ch'iang tribes, people of high plateaux and great river gorges, it is both a priori and a posteriori improbable that the actual flanks of the Nan-shan on the Chinese side should have had any but a Ch'iang population. For, if there had been, in addition to the Little Yüeh-chih, of whom we do hear, any non-Ch'iang population in the Nan-shan,2 it is hardly possible that in the long course of events involving raids upon Su-chou, Kan-chou, and Liangchou, and, as we have seen, a great Chinese expedition over the Nan-shan, it should never have been mentioned. Moreover, the evidently Ch'iang district Cog (Tsog, Tshog)-ro, the 'Cog (Tsog) country', which clearly belonged to the T'u-yü-hun territory and which in a list of Tibetan army districts is associated with the Koko-nor area (Phyug-tshams) and with the districts of the Rma (Hoang-ho) and Ka(Ska)-ba (Liang-chou), is probably the country of the Džok river, which De Groot identifies (i, p. 122; ii, p. 203) with the river of Kan-chou or that of Su-chou, flowing down from 'the Ch'iang rocks'. It is further likely that Lok-tik,4 which in the Chinese campaign of 121 B.C. is associated with the Little Yüehchih and the Ch'i-lien mountains (south-east of Tun-huang), and which the Chinese identify (De Groot, i, p. 124) with a part of the Kan-chou district, is the country of the Lok tribe, which was originally connected with the Tun-huang region and part of which penetrated in 638 B.C. far into China.5 This being the case, it

¹ See Wang Jinqru, Shishiah Studies (Academia Siniea Monographs, Series A, Nos. 8, 11, 13), i, pp. 17 sqq., esp. p. 29.

² It may be noticed that the 'Little Yueh-chih', when they first fled to the mountains, 'took refuge with the K'iang' (Franke, Ostasiatische Zeitschrift, vi, p. 85).

² Re the above particulars see Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, i, p. 279 and n. 5; ii, pp. 10-12.

[·]魚樂 得.

⁵ Wylie, p. 430; De Groot, i, p. 19, ii, p. 191.

becomes probable that the name Lok-tik means the 'Tik of the Lok tribe' and contains the ethnical name Tik,1

As has been shown previously (JRAS, 1928, p. 633; 1939, p. 216), the speakers of the Nam language, which was the language of the Nam, or Nam-pa ('Nam people') kingdom, were called Nam-tig. A Nam state, with a king, is independently evidenced in Central Asia,2 and it is natural to associate it with the Nan-shan. That the language was Tibeto-Burman and that the horizon of the people had for centre the districts of Koko-nor and Amdo is certain from the particulars which have been published and which will be reexamined infra. Since we know that the ethnical name Tik existed on the line of the lower T'ao river and in the form Ti is still there preserved, and since it now appears that in the far north of the Nan-shan the same was contained in the tribal designation Lok-tik, it is not at all venturesome to suppose that on the Tibetan side of the Nan-shan, in the actual Koko-nor region, the same was contained in the name Nam-tig, which accordingly might be written Nam-Tig. But, in fact, the same syllable in tribal or local names exists there even in modern times. In the Geografia Tibeta of Min-tshul Huthuktu (p. 51) we read:

'Hence (i.e. from some places in the Koko-nor region and north of the Rma-chu (Hoang-ho)) to the east are found the races Tan-tig and Yan-tig [the latter mentioned also in *Hor-chos-byun*, trans. Huth, p. 227], where are Sel-gyi-yan-rdzon (fort or castle) and some other places and also a few monasteries.'

and in the next paragraph we learn that to the north-west of Tan-tig and Yan-tig is the great mountain Tson-la, avoiding which one arrives at the celebrated place Tson-kha and so proceeds to Kum-bum. The mountain may be the Lha-mo-shan or Lha-mo-ri of Rockhill (*The Land of the Lamas*, p. 94) or some part of the range which on the latest Indian Survey map is named *Amaserigu*. Also, the well-known place Kuei-tê on the Hoang-ho to the south of the Koko-nor has in Chinese spelling a second syllable anciently sounded tok.³

¹ The Chinese signs for Lok and Tik (Karlgren, Nos. 568, 573, 980) are not the same in the two cases: but their values approximate. Variations in the writing of foreign names, communicated through different channels and of unascertained meaning, seem to have been usual in China; and even the racial name Tik, which must have been well known, is often written (De Groot, i, p. 5) with a different homophone.

² Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, i, p. 130, n. 5.

³ Karlgren, No. 981. The spelling Kuei-të (Prejevalsky Quedae, Futterer Kuei-tö; Tafel Kue-de (map °te); Kozlov, Gui-Dui (with views, pp. 165,

It need not be stated that Tson-kha, birthplace of the fourteenthcentury Buddhist reformer Tson-kha-pa, has not a modern name: indeed it may be said that by the suffix ka1 (later kha) it both affirms its regional character and suggests that the name Tson was originally tribal. But a far higher antiquity, more or less contemporary with our Nam manuscript, is proved in respect of Tson-ka and Dan(Tan)-tig jointly by an eighth or ninth century manuscript, containing a Buddhist pilgrim's letters of introduction; it states (JRAS, 1927, p. 552) that the pilgrim, after visiting a monastery in Ga-cu (Ho-chou), had arrived at the mountain Dan-tig-san (= Chinese shan, 'mountain') and thence at a Tsonka monastery. It is not likely that an independent Nam kingdom existed during the T'u-vū-hun domination (A.D. 313-63); and the few pieces of its folk-literature and legend which we have now acquired are in Tibetan script, and all but one in Tibetan language. But evidently there is no difficulty in the supposition that its people preserved the old racial designation Tik, which has survived down to the present or recent past.

The only doubt may be whether the syllable was used rather in its original sense of 'man', equivalent to the Tibetan mi (in northeastern Tibet mi, rmi, or smi); in regard to that we have no evidence.

Of the first syllable of Nam-Tig the most probable etymology is to regard it as representing the Chinese nam, 'south', in Nan-shan, 'southern mountain', an ancient name, used in the nomenclature of persons in Chinese Turkestan during the third to fourth century A.D.² Probably the compound Nam-Tig itself is also there attested, in the Prakrit form Namtiĝa.³ The only other Chinese alternative is nam, 'male', 'son'. In the Tibeto-Burman languages of the region we could cite only gnam, nam, 'sky' (Tibetan also nam, 'night'). Both these seem less appropriate.

175)) is adopted from Rockhill. The Chinese characters may be verified in Dr. Filchner's Wissenschaftliche Ergebnisse, iii, Name-list, p. 21, where the form Kui-tō is printed. Kuei-tē is an old name, the place (concerning which see Rockhill, Diary, pp. 89 sqq.; Futterer, i, p. 318—19; Tafel, i, pp. 263 sqq.) having been the capital of a small Chiang state, 'Duncki', with a dynasty Tsi, which in A.D. 418 appeared with gifts at the Chinese (Wei) court (Bichurin, i, p. 113). At Kuei-tē the river is crossed by routes to Labrang and Lha-sa.

See supra, pp. 31-2 and n. 1.

See Festgabe Hermann Jacobi, ed. W. Kirfel (1926), p. 67.

^{*} Kharosthi Inscriptions, edited by Boyer, Rapson, and Senart (Index): see JRAS. 1939, p. 216, n. 2.

The above considerations seem to authorize the conclusion that the Nam state, of which one ruler took to wife a Khotan princess¹ and concerning which our only other information is derived from manuscripts written in Śa-cu = Tun-huang, of Chinese Kan-su, was situated in the Nan-shan region and presumably on the Tibetan side of it. As will appear, its folk-lore envisaged the Koko-nor region and the Skyi = Tang-hsiang kingdom on its south, separated therefrom by the Rma-chu.

THE NAM, OR NAM-TIG, LANGUAGE, THE HSI-FAN AND THE CHIANG

Nam, Ch'iang, Hsi-hsia

It may now, perhaps, be taken for granted that the Nam language, the language of the Nam-Tig people, which from a few examples of nomenclature we know to have been genetically akin to Tibetan, was a Ch'iang dialect. Unfortunately the only certified specimens of Ch'iang speech are the short 'Songs of Western Barbarians' (Pai-lan, Bair-lang) which have been mentioned supra (pp. 34, 51). The character and transmission of the songs are also not very satisfactory. The monosyllabic words in the four-syllable lines of the songs are in Chinese sentence-order; and, as the Tibeto-Burman order is different, and the sentiment is likewise unnatural, it is evident that the songs were conceived in Chinese and given to the Barbarians as what they might like to say, with substitution only of their own, as far as possible equivalent, words.

The pronunciation of the words, transmitted in Chinese characters, is exposed to all the uncertainties regarding Chinese pronunciation, or pronunciations, in the first century A.D.; and the etymological connexions with Hsi-hsia (12th-13th century) and Tibetan words are accordingly, in the great majority of cases, highly dubious. For these reasons the three little texts are in only very slight measure illuminating.

The Hsi-hsia language, employed in the Tangut kingdom, which was founded by the To-pa tribe of the Tang-hsiang, was presumably Ch'iang. Two circumstances render it practically useless for the study of early stages of Ch'iang speech. One of these circumstances is the transmission of most of the known words through Chinese characters, an obstacle which, however, by reason of date and of advanced precision on the part of the Chinese

Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, i, p. 130, n. 5.

linguists is less than in the case of the 'Songs of the Barbarians'. In the very complicated and difficult Hsi-hsia writings there are indeed many Buddhist texts, wherein the meanings of large numbers of signs have been determined by comparison with versions of the same texts in other languages; and in a moderate number of cases the like result is obtained from interlinear translations in Chinese. Interlinear transcriptions in Tibetan writing supply sound-values of about 330 signs, whereof in about threequarters of the number of cases the meaning also is known from Chinese translations; and sound-values of many signs are known from their use in transliteration of Sanskrit religious formulae (dhāranīs). But the study of the script has not yet (pending a publication of Sir G. L. M. Clauson's researches) progressed to a stage where characters not so known can be read, i.e. understood in respect of sound or sense. Accordingly the available vocabulary consists of:

- (a) signs whose meaning is known;
- (b) signs whose sound is approximately known from Chinese or Tibetan transcription or from use in formulae;
- (c) a moderate number of signs whereof both pronunciation and meaning are known.

This material, despite its deficiencies, might nevertheless be of great use but for a second circumstance, inherent in the language itself, which, if judged from a Tibetan point of view, is at a stage of very advanced phonetic degeneration. Scarcely any of its monosyllabic words are represented as commencing with conjunct consonants (there are some cases with y or v or w as the second member) and few as ending in a consonant. Hence from a Tibetan standpoint it would be said that:

- (a) all initial consonant groups have been simplified;
- (b) all final consonants and consonant groups, except \(\hat{n}\) (also representing \(g\) and \(m\)), and, in a smaller number of instances, \(n, m\), and \(r\), have been discarded.

Nor is this merely a hypothetical judgement; for there are some groups, e.g. tenuis+r, media+r, which are attested throughout

¹ See N. Nevsky, A Brief Manual of the Si-Hia Characters with Tibetan Transcriptions (Research Review of the Osaka Asiatic Society, No. 4, 1926), and, as regards the dhāranis, the above (p. 58, n. 1) mentioned Shishiah Studies of Wang Jinqru. A plate with Chinese translations was given by Morisse in Mémoires présentées par divers savants of the Académie des Inscriptions xx, I, xi (1904), p. 362, and a plate with Tibetan transcription is printed as Plate CXXXIV in Sir A. Stein's Innermost Asia.

the Tibeto-Burman sphere, and hence must have been primary in Hsi-hsia also. The effect of the degeneration of consonants, together with the serious degeneration of vowels and the consequent multiplication of homophones, is to render conjectural almost every restoration of earlier forms of the words. Thus at the present stage of our knowledge the Hsi-hsia vocables are for etymological purposes rather awaiting light from extraneous sources than able to contribute. To the matter of the consonantal Prefixes which the Tibetan transcriptions attribute to Hsi-hsia words we shall recur infra (p. 108).

The late Dr. Laufer, whose remarkable article in Toung-pao1 greatly stimulated the modern study of Hsi-hsia and who by a mass of comparisons adduced from all known dialects of Tibeto-Burman convincingly demonstrated the etymological connexions (but not the historical developments, since most of the dialects have become known only in modern times) of so many Hsi-hsia words, expressed the opinion that the language was not 'fundamentally Tibetan', but was 'an independent and peculiar idiom in the great family of Tibeto-Burman languages, fundamentally evincing decided affinities with the Lo-lo and Mo-so group'. In view of the geographical and historical considerations which we have been following out both the negative and the positive parts of this statement would have a priori probability. A perusal of the available literature concerning Lo-lo and Mo-so, and of the grammars and vocabularies which it includes, will make it clear that the two groups are at approximately the same stage of phonetic degeneration as the Hsi-hsia itself; and there may be a common cause, namely an influence emanating from Chinese, which from very early times has been traversing similar developments. But can it be proved that the Hsi-hsia, the Lo-lo, and the Mo-so have behind them stages of development comparable to that of the earliest known Tibetan and do not derive rather from a still earlier stage of Tibeto-Burman, lacking the more complex formations of the Tibetan? It seems likely that this problem will be solved ambulando and that the consideration of the groups tenuis+r, &c., and of the final consonants will contribute to the solution.2 In the meanwhile what we have called the 'phonetic

¹ Vol. xvii (1916), pp. 1-126, The Si-hia Language, based upon a Chinese manual published, with interpretation, by Prof. A. Ivanov in the Bulletin de l'Académie des Sciences de St.-Pétersbourg, 1909, pp. 1221-33. For a bibliography of Hsi-hsia studies see Laufer, pp. 4 sqq.
² As concerns the characteristic consonantal Prefixes of the Tibetan,

degeneration' of Lo-lo and Mo-so, like that of Hsi-hsia, greatly restricts the assistance which these can render in ascertaining the meanings of unknown words. It is chiefly in combining to establish a common vocabulary that they may be of use; thus, for instance, we may get a regional word mo or mon, meaning 'sun' or 'sky', which the Tibetan would never have supplied.

The next group of languages which may be closely related to the Nam are those of the peoples known to the Chinese as Hsi-fan, 'Western Fan', or Fan-min, 'Fan people', including T'u-fan, 'Agricultural Fan', and Fan-tzū and Man-tzŭ, who are mostly nomads. The term in general use among scholars is *Hsi-fan*.

'Hsi-fan' and 'Man-tzü'

For any further linguistic, or indeed ethnographical, use of the term Hsi-fan it is, however, necessary to obtain a more definite idea of its denotation. The matter has been carefully discussed by Sir Henry Yule, who quoted from Hodgson's essays¹ a passage mainly as follows:

'From Khokhonúr to Yúnnán, the conterminous frontier of China and Tibet is successively and continuously occupied (going from north to south) by the Sókpa above spoken of; by the Amdóans, who for the most part now speak Tibetan; by the Thochu; by the Gyárung, and by the Mányak. . . . The people of Sókyeul,2 of Amdo, of Thóchú, of Gyárúng, and of Mányak . . . bear among the Chinese the common designation of Sifán or Western aliens; and the Tibetans frequently denominate them Gyárungbo from the superior importance of the special tribe of Gyárúng, which reckons eighteen chiefs or banners. . . . The word Gyá, in the language of Tibet, is equivalent to that of Fan (alienus, barbaros) in the language of China; and as rúng means, in the former tongue, proper or special, Gyárûng signifies alien par excellence. . . . Others affirm that Gyárúng means wild, rude, primitive Gyás . . . and that the typical Gyás (Gyámi) are the Chinese, though the latter be usually designated specially black Gyás (Gyá-nak).'

Philologically Hodgson's statement, based upon Nepalese and Tibetan information, can no longer hold good. Rgya-nag, 'Black plain', is the common and ancient Tibetan designation of China;

Dr. Laufer allows (p. 103) to Hsi-hsia only four examples; but two would have been enough! On this matter see infra, p. 108.

Sog-yul, 'Mongol country'.

¹ 1874, ii, pp. 66-7: see Yule's 'Geographical Introduction' to The River of Golden Sand, by Captain W. Gill, condensed by E. C. Baber (1883), pp. 125 sqq.

and a Chinaman may be mentioned as Rgya simply or as Rgya-mi, 'Rgya-man', which is the name of Hodgson's Gyāmi language. With this Rgya the term Gyārūng, which in Tibetan is Rgyal(or Rgyal-mo)-ron, 'King's or Queen's Gorge', has nothing to do; and it is, moreover, inconceivable that the Tibetans ever applied the term Rgyal-ron-po, 'people of the Rgyal-ron', to the Mongols, Amdoans, &c.; furthermore, it is hardly the fact that the Chinese ever include the Mongols of Tibet under the designation Hsi-fan.¹ That Thōchū is really the name of the T'ao river and the town T'ao-chou situated on it Hodgson could not know; his unfortunate misconception that his 'Hórpa' dialect had something to do with Turkish (Hor) people precluded his assigning in the above passage a place to the Hor-pa states.

But in remarking that the Chinese applied their term *Hsi-fan* to the Amdoans, 'Thōchū', 'Gyārūng', and 'Mānyak', peoples Hodgson was, no doubt, well informed. For Baber also, as Yule remarks (p. 126, n. 6), refers to the people of Tzū-ta-ti, on the lower T'ung river, perhaps included in the old Mi-ñag (Mányak) country, as Sifan; and Baber also states² that

'Sifan, convertible with Man-tzū, is a loose Chinese expression of no ethnological value, meaning nothing more than western barbarians; but in a more restricted sense it is used to designate a people (or peoples) which inhabits the valley of the Yalung and the upper T'ung [sc. the Chin-ch'uan or Gold River] from about the twenty-seventh parallel to the borders of Koko-nor. This people is subdivided into eighteen tribes [which he proceeds to name].'

This definition includes Hodgson's Thóchú, Gyárúng, Mányak, and also the Hor-pa states (mentioned among the 'eighteen tribes'). Rockhill states (p. 72, n. 1) that on the Kan-su border the Chinese apply to the non-agricultural natives the terms Sheng Fan, 'wild barbarians', Hsi-Fan, 'western barbarians', more commonly Fan-tzŭ, '(sons of) barbarians', or, in the case of the wildest tribes, Hei Fan-tzŭ, 'black (sc. independent) barbarians': he further notes (p. 241) that the Ssŭ-ch'uan people call all eastern Tibetans Man-tzŭ or Man-chia. The Vicomte d'Ollone says³ that 'Under this very vague appellation [Si-Fan] the Chinese confound all the populations which we call Tibetan'. Similarly, the late

¹ Rockhill, p. 72, n. 2.

³ R. Geographical Society's Supplementary Papers, vol. i, p. 81.

In Forbidden China (English translation of Les Derniers Barbares), p. 180.

Professor Sir Reginald Johnston mentions (From Peking to Mandalay, pp. 268 sqq.) that 'by the Chinese many of the western tribes are more or less indiscriminately known as Man-tzū, Manchia, Hsi-Fan and T'u Fan': he proceeds, however, to point out that the terms Fan and Man, which to the modern Chinese are ordinary words, meaning 'barbarians' or 'savages', were originally native, non-Chinese, designations of the peoples. In fact, the Man tribes and the 'Southern Man' (Nan-Man) are often mentioned in old Chinese literature, and sometimes identified with a southern people or peoples, called Miao-tzū.

But, of course, 'the Chinese' is itself a very vague expression, and we have indications of more precise Chinese conceptions of the import of the terms *Man-tzū* and *Hsi-fan*. Yule, following Richthofen, observes (p. 125) that:

'The Man-Tzū are regarded by the Chinese as the descendants of the ancient occupants of the province of Ssū-ch'uan, and Mr. Wylie has drawn attention¹ to the numerous cave dwellings which are ascribed to them in the valley of the Min river. The name is applied to the tribes which occupy the high mountains on the west of the province up to about 32° lat. North of that parallel, beginning a little south of Sung-Pan-Ting, the extreme point of Captain Gill's excursion in this direction, are the Si-Fan ("western aliens"), who extend into the Koko-Nur basin.

'Both terms, Man-Tzü and Si-Fan, seem, however, to be used somewhat loosely or ambiguously.

'Thus, Man-Tzū is applied to some tribes which are not Tibetan, while it is also applied to people, like those on the Ta-Chien-Lu road, who are distinctly Tibetan.

'Thus, also, Si-Fan appears to be sometimes applied to the whole body of tribes, of different languages, who occupy the alpine country between Koko-Nur and the Lolo mountain country, and sometimes distinctively to a Tibetan-speaking race who form a large part of the occupants of that country on the north-east of Tibet, and in the Koko-Nur basin, the *Tangutans* of Colonel Prejevalsky. And in this sense it is used in Captain Gill's book.'

It is indeed remarkable that Gill, whose information was local (Ssū-ch'uan), does so clearly distinguish (op. cit., pp. 127, 133) between his Si-Fan, related doubtless to the 'nomades des hauts plateaux' (Sung-p'an region) of d'Ollone's vocabularies, and his Man-Tzū (pp. 111–12, 119, 122), whom he found near Li-fan-fu

Proceedings of the R. Geographical Society, xiv, pp. 168 sqq. Cf. Baber, pp. 131 sqq.; Rockhill, Diary, p. 73; Johnston, pp. 46, 50.

(half-way between Ch'êng-t'u and Sung-p'an), and 'Outer Mantzū', farther west, of whom he tells us (pp. 111–12) that there is a high tower in each village, usually square, one octagonal, and that the possession of one was said to be a privilege enjoyed by the headman,¹ though he afterwards saw three or four in one village. The country to the west of Sung-p'an and Li-fan-fu is the Rgyalron-Gyārūng territory, and it may be considered the centre of distribution of the towers. Perhaps we shall be able to prove definitely a connexion between the towers and a Man people. In general, it is clear that Gill in his use of the term Man-Tzū had in view mainly peoples of the Rgyal-ron-Ssū-ch'uan border: and the same appears to be actual Chinese usage in the Rgyal-ron itself (Tafel, ii, pp. 241, 247; cf. Gill, op. cit., p. 119, and Fergusson, infra, p. 68).

For further illustration of local employment of the term Mantzu we may cite the works of missionaries, The Marches of the Mantze, by J. H. Edgar, and Adventure, Sport and Travel on the Tibetan Steppes, by W. H. Fergusson. The former, whose scope comprises all the country as far west as Ba-t'ang (p. 7), states that 'The people inhabiting the marches (i.e. the Mantze) are of Tibetan descent and without exception speak the language of this people' (p. 8): yet he recognizes the separate existence of the 'Chia Rung' (Rgyal-ron) states. Mr. Fergusson holds (pp. 247 sqq.) that the Mantze, by which term he means primarily the Rgyal-ron peoples, are 'different from the rest of the people of the west of China'; and he conceives for them an immigration from 'Gari, a place just north of Siklim, near Camba Dsung' (sc. Kam-ba-rdzon'?). Elsewhere (Geographical Journal, 1908, pp. 594-7) he remarks concerning the Rgyal-ron peoples that:

¹ The towers are not dwelling-houses, but places for refuge and storage: the chief's abode is a castle (see Fergusson, p. 248, and views pp. 166, 194).

² This perhaps was not intended to be taken quite literally. As has been already seen (supra, p. 19), the population from Ba-t'ang westwards is not by the Tibetans regarded as racially Tibetan, and this judgement is extended to the people of Dmar-khams, SW. of Ba-than and on the other side of the Hbri-chu. Ba-than is named after a Hbah tribe (Rockhill, p. 218, n. 1), which may even have been a division of the Mi-nag, since the 'Mu-nia' people of Davies, Yūn-nan (Table of Tibeto-Burman Languages, p. 4), are by the Yūn-nan Tibetans designated Ba. Sir R. Johnston (p. 268) thought that the people of the country west of the T'ung river could be styled Tibetan only in a non-ethnical sense.

As regards speech Rockhill remarks (*Diary*, p. 355) that the Tibetan pronunciation of Ba-than was nearly incomprehensible, whereas that of Li-than was nearer to the Lha-san.

'They are not Tibetan, nor do they wish to be called such. Their features are different, and so is their language. They have mixed much with the Tibetans and have adopted many of their manners and customs, as well as their written language, which has been brought in by the lamas. In the spoken language many words have been borrowed from the same source, but the majority have no connection with Tibetan.'

We have seen already (p. 19) that on the Tibetan side also the Rgyal-ron peoples are regarded as distinct.

From the above it is apparent that in Ssū-ch'uan the Man-tzŭ, peoples on the west, are not confused with the Hsi-fan occupying the high steppe country more to the north. Indeed Mr. Fergusson says (p. 249) that:

'There is no other Chinese term [than Man-tzu] to distinguish them (the Rgyal-ron people) from the Sifan, employed in reference to the ordinary Tibetan of Central and Northern Tibet.'

Historically it would seem that in applying the term Hsi-fan not to neighbours on the west, but only to nomad tribes from Sung-p'an northwards the Ssu-ch'uanese preserve an old tradition. For Hsi-fan is not a modern expression. As can be seen from Professor Franke's Geschichte des Chinesischen Reiches, iii, pp. 22-4, it dates back to the time of the Sung Annals and the Biography of Hsüantsang (7th century A.D.), at which period it denoted peoples of the Kan-su border: later also it specially applied to the region including Hsi-ning, Ho-chou, T'ao-chou, and Min-chou, in fact the old Ch'iang territory. In the texts it seems to have gone out of fashion owing to the prominence of the Tibetans, from the seventh century, in that area and to the new term Tu-fan employed in regard to them. It seems allowable to conjecture that it originated as a substitute for Hsi-ch'iang, when the Ch'iang ceased to appear as a definite mass in the borderlands; it could embrace also the remnants of intermingled Te and Tig peoples. It would be a curious fact if, as Professor Franke states, the term were now used (in literature) only of the people of the Rgyal-ron: and it seems more likely that it is, as von Rosthorn, cited by Franke, limits it. confined 'to certain tribes in the administrative area of Sung-p'an'. i.e. to the Si-Fan of Gill, who would really be Go-lok. The modern wide use of the term by the Chinese to denote the Tibetans in general is mentioned by Professor Franke.

Practically a distinction between Hsi-fan and Tibetan holds

good. Major Davies in his Yün-nan (pp. 384, 387) affirms its validity. The Tibetans, he says,

'call themselves $P\ell$, or, as the sound might be better transliterated, $P\ddot{o}$ [sc. Bod].... In western China, however, the Tibetans are more usually known by other names. In Ssũ-ch'uan they call them $Man\text{-}tz\ddot{u}$, or, more politely, Man-chia, names which are also applied to the Lo-los of that province. In Yün-nan the most common name for a Tibetan is Ku-tsung.'

Hsi-fan is, he says, applied by the Chinese 'to certain tribes which inhabit the borderland between China and Tibet and may be accepted as a useful designation for those tribes'. Like Mr. Fergusson, he notes even a physical difference from Tibetans, though admitting that, if not indistinguishable from Tibetans, 'many of the Hsi-fan are at all events completely Tibetan in religion and customs'.

As is evident from the narratives of travellers,² the differences of race and sociology are acutely realized by the border peoples. Even the Chinese, with their superior outlook, do not, it seems, apply to peoples of distinct characteristics, Lo-los, Mo-sos, &c., the term Hsi-fan; and, if they do sometimes speak of Lo-los as Mantzŭ, it is conceivable that the Lo-los are in fact of Man origin; a partly Man origin of the Rgyal-ron tribes, also, as we see, called Man-tzŭ, is not improbable, since we have definite early notice of a Man people in the vicinity of Ya-chou and the 'Women's Kingdom'.³

'Hsi-fan' languages: a Tibetan group

The following is a list of vocabularies, with particulars concerning languages and spellings:

Baber, E. Colborne, A Journey of Exploration in Western Ssü-ch'uan (R. Geographical Society's Supplementary Papers, vol. i (1881), pp. 1-152).

Languages: pp. 73-8 Si-fan (properly Menia) of Tzū-ta-ti (on the T'ung river, far S. of Ta-chien-lu: map, p. 93), along with Lo-lo dialects. Spelling English.

Bacot, Jacques, Les Mo-so. Ethnographie der Mo-so, leur religion, leur langue et leur écriture. Avec les documents historiques et géographiques relatifs à Li-kiang par Ed. Chavannes (Leiden, 1913).

Language: Mo-so (full vocabulary of spoken language, pp. 29-55, and of written signs—mostly with transcription, pp. 62-117, Grammar, pp. 56-61). Spelling French, ordinary and with aspirates as kh, th, &c.

² Cf. Johnston, op. cit., pp. 274, 277, 279.

¹ On the origin of this term see Rockhill, p. 220, n. 2.

Bushell's 'Lonü Man', JRAS. 1880, p. 531 (42).

DAVIES, H. R., Yün-nan, the Link between India and the Yangtze (Cambridge) 1909), pp. 235-44 (4 Tables)=Vocabularies of Tibeto-Burman languages of Yun-nan and Western Ssu-ch'uan.

Languages cited: Ku-tsung (Yün-nan Tibetan), Lu-tzu, P'rū-mi, Mu-nia, Li-so (or 'su). Spelling English, but with 'Continental' vowels and

aspirates as k', t', &c.

Desgodins, L'Abbé, C. H., 'Mots principaux des langues de certaines tribus qui habitent les bords du Lan-tsan-kiang, du Loutse kiang et Irrawaddy' (Bulletin de la Société de Géographie, Sér. VI, tome v (1873), pp. 144-7).

Languages: Mosso, Lissou, Min-kia, Loutse, Chinese, Tibetan, Kham di Mou oua (Khamti). Spelling French, with aspirates as kh, th, &c. -, Le Thibet d'après la correspondance des missionnaires (2nd ed., Paris,

1885).

Language: Mélam, pp. 371-7, some words, &c., adduced (in part erro-

neously) as not derived from Tibetan. Spelling French,

GILL, CAPT. W., The River of Golden Sand, condensed edition by E. Colborne Baber, with Geographical Introduction by Sir Henry Yule (London, 1883).

Languages (only numerals 1-12, 20): Si-fan, A (from neighbourhood of Li-fan-fu) and B (from neighbourhood of Sung-p'an), Outer Man-Tzu

(W. of Li-fan-fu). Spelling English.

, quoted in Terrien de Lacouperie, The Languages of China before the Chinese (see infra). Some additional numerals and other words from

the same languages.

Hoposon, B. H., 'Sifán and Hórsók Vocabularies with another special exposition in the wide range of Mongolidan affinities . . .' (Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, xxii (1853), pp. 121-51: reprinted in Hodgson's Essays on the Languages . . . of Nepál and Tibet, London, 1874. pp. 64 sqq.)

Languages: Thóchú, Sókpa (really Mongol), Gyámi (Chinese), Gyárúng, Hórpa, Tákpa, Mányak. Spelling precise according to system ex-

pounded, ibid., pp. 150-1.

JOHNSTON, SIE R., From Peking to Mandalay (London, 1908).

Languages (pp. 392-7): Pa-U-rong, Muli(Njong), also dialects of Lo-lo and Mo-so, also Li-so. Spelling English, but with 'Continental' vowels and aspirates as k', t', &c.

LAUFER, BERTHOLD, The Si-hia Language, a Study in Indo-Chinese Philology

(T'oung-pao, II. xvii (1916), pp. 1-126).

Language: Si-hia (with etymological, &c., discussions covering the whole range of Tibeto-Burman, Thai, &c.: some words of Ge-li-ts'a).

Spelling according to system of Lepsius.

LIETARD, A., 'Notes sur les dialectes Lo-lo' (Bulletin de l'École Française d'Extrême-Orient, ix (1909), pp. 549-58), with the Tse-kou Sifan (= Ollone 36) of Père Monbeig.

Language: Lo-lo. Spelling systematic, with aspirates as k', t', &c.

MONBEIG, Père. See LIÉTARD.

NEVSKY, N., A Brief Manual of the Si-hia Characters with Tibetan Transcriptions (Research Review of the Osaka Asiatic Society, Osaka, 1926).

Language: Si-hia (Tibetan transcriptions, also romanized, with Chinese renderings and citations of etymological correlates in Chinese, Tibeto-Burman, &c.). Spelling systematic.

OLLONE, VICOMTE D', Langues des peuples non-Chinois de la Chine (Mission

d'Ollone, vol. vi, Paris, 1912).

Languages (in addition to numerous dialects of Lo-lo, Mo-so, &c.): Eight 'Sifan' dialects, viz. Nos. 35 Nameji, 36 Sifan (really Tse-kou Tibetan), 37 Peu, 38 Duampou, 39 Pé, 40 Pé, 41 Dzorgai, 42 Kortsè: with No. 38 are given some words of the Peu of Seutati, and with No. 40 some words reported as used by the nomads of the contiguous high plateaux; on pp. 222-4 supplements to Nos. 38, 40-2, including a few phrases. Spelling French (ordinary and with possible inconsistencies between different dialects, due to difference of recorders, see pp. 4-5).

ORLEANS, PRINCE HENRI D', From Tonkin to India (English trans., London, 1898).

Languages (in addition to numerous dialects of S. China and the Sino-Tibetan borderlands in the SW.): Nos. 19 Lissou, 22 Pe Lissou, 24 Louise (also Nos. 3, 7, 12, 15 Lolo, 23 Mosso). Spelling French.

PREJEVALSKY, N., Mongolia, the Tangut Country . . . (trans. by E. Delmar Morgan, 2 vols., London, 1876).

Language: Tangut (pp. 136-8, 112-13, and notes by the translator, pp. 302-3). Spelling in transliteration from Russian original.

ROCKHILL, W. W., The Land of the Lamas (London, 1891).

Languages: Amdowa and Panak'a Tibetan (pp. 362-7); Tibetan syllabary with pronunciation of Lhasa, Bat'ang, and the Tsarong (pp. 368-70). Spelling according to normal transcription of Tibetan (and Chinese).

ROSTRORN, A. VON., 'Vokabularfragmente Ost-Tibetischer Dialekte' (Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, li (1897), pp. 524-

31, with comment by A. Conrady, pp. 531-3).

Languages: Rgya-ron dialects, viz. Wassū (pp. 526-9), Pati (p. 530), Pawang (p. 530), Hanniu (pp. 530-1). Spelling according to system of Lepsius.

TAYEL, ALBERT, Meine Tibetreise (2 vols. Stuttgart, 1914).

Language: Rgyal-ron dialects (occasional citations of words and phrases, in considerable total number). Spelling German.

TERRIEN DE LACOUPERIE, 'The languages of China before the Chinese' (Transactions of the Philological Society, London, 1887, pp. 394-538; pp. 468-71, 538, discussion of Hodgson's Gyárûng; pp. 479-87, Lakas or Lolos, Liso (or 'su), Mo-so, Lu-tze, Melam; pp. 487-93 Si-fan and Tibetan).

Languages: Captain Gill's short lists of additional words (numerals, &c.) from Sung-p'an Si-fan, Li-fan-fu Si-fan, and Outer Man-Tzu.

Wang Jingru, Shishia Studies (Academia Sinica Monographs, Series A. Nos. 8, 11, 13, Pei-ping, 1931-).

i, pp. 17-53: three Bairlang songs (from the Later Han Annals).

ii, pp. 275-88: Shishia, Ch'iang and Minia (also Baber's Menia) in the

Ssŭ-ch'uan province.

ii, pp. 1-272, iii, pp. 1-396: Romanized Shishia words intercolumniated in Shishia version of the Buddhist Suvarnaprabhāsa-sūtra. Spelling for literary Tibetan and Chinese normal, for dialect words in Chinese transcription historico-phonetical, in other cases systematic or according to sources.

Wolfenden, S. N., Notes on the Jyarung Dialect of Eastern Tibet (T'oungpao, II. xxxii (1936), pp. 167-204).

Language: Jyd-run (Prefixes, Grammar, Sentences, comparisons with Tibetan). Spelling according to system of Lepsius.

References may be facilitated by a list of the names in alphabetic order, as follows:

Amdo Tibetan (Rockhill).

Bairlang (Wang Jinqru), Ch'iang of Ssū-ch'uan border.

Bat'ang Tibetan (Rockhill).

Duampou (Ollone 38).

Dzorgai Sifan (Ollone 41).

Ge-ši-ts'a (Laufer) of Rgyal-ron.

Gyámi Chinese (Hodgson).

Gyarung (Hodgson) of Rgyal-ron.

Hanniu (Rosthorn) of Rgyal-ron.

Hórpa (Hodgson).

Jyá-run (Wolfenden) of Rgyal-ron.

Kortse Sifan (Ollone 42).

Ku-tsung Tibetan (Davies).

Li-so (or 'su) (Davies) = Lissou.

Lissou (Orléans), also in Desgodins: = Li-su: also Pe Lissou.

Lit'ang Tibetan (Rockhill).

Lo-lo (Baber, Johnston, Liétard, Ollone, Orléans)-rarely cited.

Loutse (Orléans), also in Desgodins: = Lu-tzŭ.

Lu-tzū (Davies) = Loutse.

Mányak (Hodgson) of Mi-ñag.

Mantze, Outer (Gill) = Man-tzů; akin to Thôchů.

Mélam (Desgodins) of Tsa-ron valley, on Upper Salween R.

Menia of Tzū-ta-ti (Baber) = Mi-ñag.

Minia (Wang Jinqru) = Mi-ñag.

Mo-so (Bacot), also in Johnston-rarely cited.

Mosso (Orléans), also Desgodins: = Mo-so.

Muli(Njong) (Johnston) = Hjan of Mi-li (2° S. of Li-t'ang); akin to Manyak.

Mu-nia (Davies) = Mi-nag.

Nameji Sifan (Ollone 35), near junction of Ya-lung and Yangtze.

Outer Mantze (Gill).

Panak'a (Rockhill), Go-lok of Amdo.

Pati (Rosthorn) of Rgyal-ron.

Pa-U-rong (Johnston), Bowrong, Bawrang on lower Ya-lung (Nag) river: akin to Manyak.

Pawang (Rosthorn) of Rgyal-ron.

Pé (Ollone 39) = Bod (Tibetan), Mao-chou region.

Pè (Ollone 40) = Bod (Tibetan), Sung-p'an region.

Pe Lissou (Orléans).

Peu (Ollone 36), Bod of Tse-kou.

Peu (Ollone 37) = Bod of Ta-chien-lu region.

Peu of Seutati (Ollone 38) = Bod of Tzű-ta-ti.

Prū-mi (Davies), of Mi-li.

Rgya-ron dialects (Rosthorn), of Rgyal-ron.

Rgyal-ron dialects (Tafel).

Seutati, Peu of (see Ollone 38) = Tzū-ta-ti.

Shishia (Wang Jinqru) = Hsi-hsia.

Sifan of Tzū-ta-ti (Baber) = Menia,

Sifan (Ollone 36 Tse-kou Sifan) = Monbeig.

Sifan A & B (Gill), also Terrien de Lacouperie: Tibetan.

Si-hia (Laufer) = Hsi-hsia.

Si-hia (Nevaky) = Hsi-hsia,
Sókpa Mongol (Hodgson).
Tákpa (Hodgson) = Dwags-po Tibetan,
Tangut Tibetan (Prejevalsky).
Thóchú (Hodgson), of T'ao-chou.
Tsarong Tibetan (Rockhill), of Upper Salween R.
Tsc-kou Tibetan (Ollone 36).
Wassū (Rosthorn) of Rgyal-ron.

The spelling of these names and of the words cited from the several languages is adapted as explained infra (pp. 79-81).

Perhaps, however, some further light can be obtained from linguistic considerations. Is there a Hsi-fan group of languages? Hodgson, in his article 'Sifán and Hórsók Vocabularies', 1 clearly recognized that his Sokpa and Gvami, and perhaps also his Tākpa, were not Hsi-fan. Ignoring his misapprehension in regard to Hörpa, we have accordingly four Hsi-fan languages, namely Thochu (T'ao-chou), Horpa, Gyarung (Rgyal-ron), and Manyak (Mi-ñag), belonging to Hsi-fan country. Since they are all obviously connected with Tibetan, are they dialects of that language? The same question, of course, arises in regard to Baber's 'Sifan (properly Menia) of Tzŭ-ta-ti',2 evidently related to Manyak, and similarly to Major Davies's (loc. cit.) 'Mu-nia [sc. Menia] Hsi-fan' of the Mi-li country. We have, also, the 'Pa-U-Rong (Bawrang, Bourong) Hsi-fan' of Sir Reginald Johnston (op. cit., pp. 392-7). The vocabularies of the Rgyal-ron compiled by von Rosthorn³ must be associated with 'Gyarung'; likewise the 'Jya-run' of the late Dr. Wolfenden's article,4 containing an orally communicated tale, with discussion and vocabulary. In the Vicomte d'Ollone's Langues des Peuples non-Chinois de la Chine we find vocabularies of as many as eight languages (Nos. 35-42) grouped as 'Sifan'. It is, however, explained (p. 20) that of these dialects one, No. 36, is nothing but Tibetan, as spoken in its district (Tse-kou-Tzŭ-ku in NW. Yün-nan), while No. 37 ('Peu' of Ta-chien-lu) does not seriously differ, and No. 40 ('Pe' of Sung-p'an district), despite its geographical remoteness, bears considerable resemblance to those two. This raises a question as to the 'Pe' (sc. Bod) of No. 39, and further as to the Tse-kou Tibetan of Prince Henri d'Orléans's From Tonkin to India (pp. 443-5) No. 25 (but this is = d'Ollone's No. 36) and the Ku-tsung Tibetan (Chung-tien in north Yün-nan) of

Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1853, pp. 121-51 (see pp. 122-3).
 Op. cit., pp. 72-8.
 ZDMG. li (1897), pp. 524 sqq.

⁴ T'oung-pao, xxxii (1936), pp. 167-204.

Major Davies. In their phonetical aspect the dialects recorded as Tibetan are not obviously less unlike ordinary Tibetan than the others or, indeed, than the distinctly non-Tibetan, though Tibeto-Burman, languages, Mo-so, Lo-lo, &c., of the same regions: for instance, the Tibetan word for 'rice', hbras (Lha-sa dre), is not more easily recognizable in Sung-p'an djéé, Ta-chien-lu djei, Tse-kou djré, dre, than in Menia tch'e, Mu-nia chi, Pa-U-Rong bre, Muli tch'e, or than in Mo-so khia, chié, tcha, tchoua, Lo-lo ch'ō-so, chi-se, tche, tchêu, ndja, &c., Loutse ambou, Kioutse amtché, amsiet, Lissou dja-pou, tche-pou, &c., all derived from the same original: in regard to numerals, &c., the case is similar.

Practically, no doubt, the compilers of the vocabularies had good reason for applying to the persons interrogated the designations 'Tibetan', 'Hsi-fan', &c.: and in the actual language they would perceive indications not apparent in the mere list of words. But the philologist must find his own grounds for deciding whether a dialect is or is not Tibetan. The most obvious ground, appreciated, no doubt, by the compilers, is the general correspondence, despite any phonetical differences, of the vocabularies as a whole and of groups of words in them. The conclusiveness of this consideration can conveniently be verified in the case of the 'Yün-nan Tibetan or Ku-tsung' by reference to Major Davies's tables, where the select Yün-nan words are shown in a column side by side with their equivalents in 'written Tibetan' and in 'standard spoken Tibetan'. The etymological identity of the corresponding terms is in most cases patent; and even where the terms are different an etymological equivalent of the Ku-tsung word can often be found, as a synonym, in the Tibetan dictionaries. In regard to other dialects we have to make our own identifications; but, this done, we can state with confidence a posteriori that-

- (a) in Prejevalsky's 'Tangut' vocabulary (Mongolia, ii, pp. 136-8), in which the translator, E. Delmar Morgan, identified (p. 303) a number of Tibetan words, nearly every word, in fact, is Tibetan;
- (b) concerning the Tse-kou Tibetan (No. 25 of Prince Henri d'Orléans = No. 36 of the Vicomte d'Ollone = Monbeig, BÉFd'E-O., ix, pp. 550-6), the Ta-chien-lu Tibetan (d'Ollone, No. 37) and the Sung-p'an Tibetan (d'Ollone, No. 40) a corresponding affirmation, in agreement with d'Ollone's own statement, can be made.

This is not the place for exhibiting the evidence in detail; but it shows that practically the whole vocabulary in these cases can be identified in the Tibetan dictionaries. Moreover, there are some specially Tibetan pronunciations, compound words, and occasional instances of purely Tibetan formatives. Matters of grammar and syntax scarcely appear in the vocabularies; but probably in this respect also there are few appreciable differences—thus 'Tangut' yut (Sung-p'an yu), 'is', rit, 'yes', mit, 'no', are Tibetan yod, 'is', red, 'is so', med, 'is not so', while, on the other hand, a ta, 'is', perhaps widely traceable in the vocabularies, must be sought in eastern Tibetan (Jyadé, ap. Rockhill, Diary, p. 270; cf. infra, p. 187).

Rockhill, however, goes much further, when he declares1 that

'The "Sung-p'an Si-fan", given in Lacouperie's "Languages of China before the Chinese", p. 97, is very good Tibetan very badly transcribed. The same may be said of nine-tenths of the words in the so-called Meniak vocabularies of Lacouperie, Hodgson and Baber and of Francis Garnier's Mosso phrase, Voy. d'Expl. en Indo-Chine, I, p. 520, where Khe tché ma seu is only Kā-cha ma she, a common Tibetan expression for "I don't understand".

and (p. 361)

'However this may be, the Mänyak'a from the Chan-tui, hike the people of Bat'ang, Ta-chien-lu, Kanzé, and Jyékundo, speak Tibetan; and the educated ones among them endeavour to pronounce as much like the Lh'asa people as they possibly can.'

This statement, which practically abolishes the Hsi-fan languages, ignores, as we shall see, important differences both of vocabulary and of phonology and morphology. Moreover, references to 'bad transcription' and imitation by the educated of Lha-sa pronunciation overlook an important fact. The words in the vocabularies are not transcribed, the dialects being never written, but recorded by the travellers, missionaries, and others from oral communication. They testify to phonetical developments on a large scale, which serve to establish the dialects as a group, not hitherto recognized, and represent a stage in Tibetan phonetics and processes which have operated extensively over the adjacent non-Tibetan languages. Rockhill himself, in his Peculiarities of the Amdoan Pronunciation (pp. 362–7), has given instances to which some of them apply, and in his Tibetan Syllabary with pronunciation

Land of the Lamas, p. 54, n. 1.

¹ i.e. skad-cha-ma-šes.

of Lh'asa, Bat'ang, and the Tsarong some of the developments can be seen stated as generalities.

The most important of these developments may be specified as follows:

1. The consonantal Prefixes of old Tibetan, namely

which in Lha-sa pronunciation have disappeared, though in some cases leaving effects, survive, excepting d, in the eastern Tibetan dialect of Khams, partly in modified forms. The 'Tangut' and Amdoan dialect, possibly derived from Khams, retains in general

g (in the forms k, kh (a spirant?)), b (as p), m (sometimes), r, while h- is usually represented, as in Khams, by a nasal, and d, l, and s by the much favoured r.

In the other dialects here considered there is very general agreement with Lha-sa; but h-sometimes survives, in the form of a nasal. Such survival of h-as a nasal is a notable phenomenon, since it is exemplified also in 'Hsi-fan' languages, and, moreover, beyond, in the sphere of Mo-so, Lo-lo, &c.

The Lha-sa and central Tibetan, also Khams, pronunciation of

kr-, khr-, gr-
pr-, phr-, br- as
$$tr$$
-(t -), thr -(th -), dr -(d -)

is not found in any of the dialects: instead of the dental they present a palatal (very possibly an earlier stage of the dental), which also appears in place of original dentals preceded by r, so that we find

and in some dialects the r has then disappeared. These changes also were widespread in the non-Tibetan border languages. They perhaps indicate that originally the r itself was palatal.

3. In the combinations

ky-,khy-,gy-,where normally the Tibetan does not palatalize,¹ and

py-, phy-, by-, where ordinary Tibetan pronounces c-, ch-, jthe dialects changed the guttural or labial to a palatal, giving cy-,

But for Lha-sa Rockhill's Syllabary, contrary to other authorities, affirms a palatalization. Rockhill is following E. Tibetan. chy-, jy-, and the y was usually vocalized, so that the outcome was ci-, chi-, ji-, which might then undergo further changes, the palatal becoming guttural or dental. In Amdo there are also instances of rgy->ry-.

- 4. After original palatal consonants and before the following vowel there was insertion of y, vocalized to i; and the consonant, having thus extruded its palatal element, often became guttural or dental. This change, like No. 3, is in accordance with Rockhill's syllabary for Ba-t'ang and the Tsa-rong. It must have been relatively late in some quarters, since it sometimes affects palatals originated under No. 2.
- 5. The combination my-, in ordinary Tibetan pronounced ny-(sometimes \tilde{n} or even $\tilde{n}y$ -), appears in the dialects as mny-, mi-, ni-, sometimes eventuating in n-. This change, likewise a palatalization, since the stages will have been

my-, mñy-, mny-, mni-

may be partly fortuitous; for my- occurs rarely, except in the ancient alternative pronunciation of m, before i and e, as my-, e.g. in myig = mig, 'eye', mye = me, 'fire'. Examples are found sporadically, more in 'Hsi-fan' and the border languages than in 'Tibetan'; but 'Tangut' has mni, 'man', and nik, 'eye'.

6. Of the final consonants of the old Tibetan, viz.

g, gs, n, ns, d, n, b, bs, m, ms, h, r, l, s

the Lha-sa pronunciation suppresses d, l, s (the last-named after vowels and after consonants), modifying the preceding vowel in the case of d, l, and s, and also of n, which survives. Intact are $-\dot{n}$, -b (except for change to -p), -m (the most permanent of the finals), -r, while -h can to a certain extent be observed, and g is partly lost (though locally surviving), partly retained as a 'checked' consonant or as -k in certain combinations. A distinction between suppressed -g and suppressed -gs is observed. According to all indications the vowel modifications here mentioned preceded the loss of the consonant: they perhaps synchronized in origin with the change of final g, d, b, to k, t, p, which prevailed over the whole area.

'Tangut' retains all the finals, except -s after vowels and consonants (but it has even a trace of -gs, as -rk) and l, the mediae g, d, b becoming tenues. There is some evidence of vowel modification before -g (u>0), $-\dot{n}$ (a>e, a>i, a>u, i>a, o>u), -d (a>e, e>i, o>u), -n (e>i), -r (u>i, u>a).

In the other dialects the weakness shown in the Lha-sa pronunciation is equalled in all points (one casual occurrence of -l appears), and in certain respects it is carried much farther. Particulars may be noted as follows:

(a) -g is nearly always lost even in the cases where in Lha-sa Tibetan it is maintained: -b likewise is practically always

missing (see pp. 84 (Draya), 107).

(b) -n is mostly, -n frequently, and -m nearly always (as -m, -n, or -n) retained. Before -n the vowels a and u become o; before -n, a, u, and o are modified; before -m, a is usually, but not always, retained, while u becomes o.

(c) -r is sometimes lost, in which case a preceding a is sometimes retained, but sometimes appears as ϵ or \ddot{o} , which are also normal when the -r is retained. Before -l (lost) there is

usually modification of the vowel.

7. As regards vowels it may be said that final a, e, and o are fairly well maintained, while i and u tend to become e and o or, especially when following a palatal or r, \ddot{o} : wa in place of final oseems characteristic of Yün-nan dialects. Of internal vowels the most noticeable changes, in addition to those cited under No. 6, are those resulting from the combinations ia, ii, &c., due to the developments described under Nos. 3, 4, 5.

Of the so stated processes, whereby we can, it may be said, explain the phonetical aspect of the bulk of the words contained in the vocabularies, the most sweeping in their effects have been the palatalizations. It cannot be mere coincidence that similar processes are widely traceable also in the non-Tibetan border languages. Of the dialects in question the oldest and least transformed is the 'Tangut'-Amdoan, clearly related to its nearest neighbour, the speech of Khams: the others are more on the level of the central Tibetan. In virtue of the palatalizations all together constitute a group.

The group cannot be designated 'Eastern Tibetan'; for that title is already appropriated to the dialect of Khams, and elsewhere also in eastern Tibet proper there may be local varieties which might reasonably share it. From Amdo to Yün-nan the members of the group are all geographically situated in territory not originally Tibetan: as has been stated, and as all indications confirm, Tibet proper did not originally, and for the most part does not now, extend north or east of the Hbri-chu, and even Tse-kou, which is between the latter and the upper Me-kong, was

not originally Tibetan. Hence the dialects may reasonably be regarded as due to expansions and settlements, which as concerns Sung-p'an and Yün-nan Tibetan must obviously be the case. Accordingly they may be designated 'Colonial Tibetan'; and, since in the west the dialects of the Ladak regions are likewise, no doubt, colonial, they may be distinguished as 'Eastern Colonial Tibetan'.

Hsi-fan languages proper and Ch'iang: spellings, place-names, Tibetan admixtures

In considering the remaining dialects we meet with two difficulties in addition to the paucity of the material contained in the vocabularies. The first difficulty is in making sure that the words recorded are actually current in the dialects. Inquiries concerning the local languages had usually to be made through intermediaries, who would ordinarily be either Tibetans or Chinese, of the locality or from outside. The Tibetan and Chinese languages being everywhere, to a greater or lesser extent, in use, and Tibetan being for the most part the language of education, writing, and literature. an interrogation might elicit not a native, but a Tibetan or Chinese term, especially if belonging to the currency of travel or some other sub-species of lingua franca or if no native equivalent existed. Fortunately most of the vocabularies were compiled by competent investigators with clear linguistic purpose; in some cases, indeed, they were supplied by missionaries familiar with the dialects. The minor embarrassment due to the fact that different systems of spelling have been used-Hodgson, for instance, having his own (carefully explained, pp. 150-1) method, Baber, Sir Reginald Johnston, and Major Davies following a usage in transcription of Chinese, von Rosthorn and Dr. Wolfenden employing the Standard Alphabet of Lepsius, the Vicomte d'Ollone's vocabularies having popular (and, as he states (pp. 4-5). not everywhere uniform) French spelling, M. Monbeig having an exact but partly independent method-may be treated on the following lines:

- (a) All the spellings may for comparative purposes be accommodated to a common standard, which cannot, however, be that of a 'phonetic alphabet', the material, as supplied, not having an accuracy of that order.
- (b) The dialects being all akin to Tibetan and any native writing of them being in Tibetan script, the words may be spelled with

consonants as if transliterated from Tibetan, i.e. with the letters and values employed in the usual transliteration of Tibetan words: by this means the attainable degree of exactness may be secured.

Thus aspiration may be represented by h (kh, ph, &c., not k', p', &c.); English ch and tch (with French tch, German tsch, &c.) by c; English j (with French dj, German dsch, &c.) by j; English dj is usually retained; English sh (with French ch, German sch, &c.) by s (except in any case where there may be ground for distinction of sh from sh); French gu and f by f and f and so forth. The guttural and palatal nasals f, f, the latter also in place of French f and the remaining signs will cause no difficulty: between bilabial and labio-dental values of f and f distinction is impracticable.

- (c) As regards vowels, the normal Tibetan values (with a as in Sanskrit) may be supplemented by \ddot{a} , \ddot{u} , \ddot{o} , and by combinations ia, ie, &c., where these occur: thus French eu becomes \ddot{o} , and Baber's Menia u becomes a.
- (d) Long vowels where recorded may be represented as \(\bar{a}\), &c. (also for Hodgson's \(\delta\), &c.), and hyphens inserted in disyllables, &c.
- (e) With a view to compendiousness of citation the variant forms of the names of languages are retained with the spellings presented by the authors of the several vocabularies, except that \bar{a} , &c., are substituted, as in (d), for original \dot{a} , \dot{a} , &c., which in some cases are of not quite certain signification. Thus, whereas in the present work T'ao-chou, Hor-pa, Rgyal-ron, Minag, Mi-li, &c., are adopted as correct forms of the names of the respective countries, &c., Hodgson's Thōchū, Hōrpa, Gyārūng, Mānyak, &c., are used in citing words from his vocabularies, as an implicit reference to his article: similarly Rgya-ron refers to the Rgyal-ron vocabularies of von Rosthorn, and Jyā-run to the article of Dr. Wolfenden (both relating to dialects different, at least in part, from Hodgson's Gyārūng); also Menia indicates the Mi-ñag vocabulary of Baber, and Mu-nia that of Major Davies;

This does not apply to Chinese words.

² Hodgson's initial gn, which is not explained, is retained, because in one case at least $(chii \cdot ngy\delta, \text{ fish'})$ he uses ng for the initial, no less than for the final n. Nevertheless it seems likely that n is intended. Hodgson's ny, sy, and zy are replaced by \tilde{n} , δ , \tilde{s} , \tilde{s} , in accordance with his explanations. His italic h, indicating an abrupt tone, is neglected. In Thōchū and Hōrpa words h, kh, gh are stated to have 'a harsh Arabic' (sc. spirantic) utterance; they are retained unaltered: in Prejevalsky's 'Tangut' the initial kh before consonants may have been similar.

Muli(Njong) and Pa-U-Rong, so spelled, refer to Sir Reginald Johnston's vocabularies, and Prü-mi to that of Major Davies; Loutse indicates the vocabulary of Desgodins, Loutse 24 and 26 those of Prince Henri d'Orléans, Lu-tzü that of Major Davies, Mélam a short list published by Desgodins, all four relating to dialects of the Tsa-ron. The vocabularies published by the Vicomte d'Ollone are conveniently cited by the numbers, 35 &c., assigned by him to them severally, whereof one, No. 36, Tse-kou, the Tzŭ-ku of Major Davies, is identical with that published for its author, M. Monbeig, in a stricter orthography, and also relates to the same dialect as does the No. 25 of Prince Henri d'Orléans.

A special case of the above stated difficulty is the spelling of place-names, of which all writers, and not only travellers, even when they know and actually mention the local forms, are apt to use a form extraneously or generally or otherwise current. The confusion wrought in Tibetan cartography by this cause has been noted by Rockhill (pp. 94-5, n.) and others. Its linguistic importance in the present connexion may be exemplified by the matter. in itself apposite, of Hodgson's 'eighteen chiefs or banners of Gyārūng', enumerated and discussed by Baber (pp. 93-6) as 'the eighteen Sifan tribes' and by Rockhill (pp. 344-6) as 'The Eighteen Tribes of the Nya-rong'. Baber's list was obtained in the Tachien-lu region: and with the aid of a Chinese map he located nearly all the tribes in his sketch-map. Rockhill's two, partly divergent, lists were supplied, one by the Secretary of the Cha-la (Cag-la, Ta-chien-lu state) chieftain, the other by a Lama resident during some years in Ta-chien-lu: both were, no doubt, in Tibetan script, which Rockhill has transliterated according to his system, adding in the former case the Lha-sa pronunciation and in the latter the items of Baber's list, which largely agrees with that of the Lama. To Rockhill we owe, further (pp. 347 sqq.), a Chinese administrative list of the 'Thirty-three Yü-t'ung Hsi-fan tribes', with geographical distribution, &c., including the eighteen: this, however, may here be disregarded.

The three lists do not exactly represent the 'eighteen chiefs or banners of the Gyārūng' (Rgyal-ron): they diverge by omissions, compensated by inclusion of the Hor-pa states and some others. To Rockhill, who, however, correctly locates many of the states in the country of the Chin-ch'uan ('Gold River', Rgyal-ron), the lists were given as applying to the Nya(Nag)-ron, i.e. the Ya-lung river country. This error is not shared by the two missionary

writers, Messrs. Edgar and Fergusson, who cite, with Chinese spellings for the most part, many of the 'Chia Rung' (Rgyal-roń) states, nor by von Rosthorn, who cites, likewise with Chinese spellings, many of the names. But it is shared by the military report and gazetteer work, in Manchu language, translated and annotated by Dr. Haenisch in volume ix (pp. 69 sqq.) of Sir Swen Hedin's Southern Tibet, where again a list and map are given. In Dr. Tafel's Meine Tibetreise (esp. ii, p. 224, nn. 1, 3) many of the states are named, partly with note, or use, of local pronunciations: a few also in Dr. Stötzner's Ins unerforschte Tibet.

But far more authentic and linguistically instructive is a list given by the author of the Geografia Tibeta (p. 46), whose people had during many centuries had intimate knowledge of the country and had constantly, no doubt, had occasion to write the names. The spellings are likely to have been traditional, and they may antedate all other available mentions of the names. Transliterating the latter in the author's order, together with the names of the Hor-pa and other states as recorded by him, and adding in parallel columns the corresponding items in (1) Rockhill's three versions, (2) Baber's list, (3) Dr. Tafel's narrative, we obtain a table as given on p. 83.

We need not consider the material discrepancies, due perhaps to lapse or absorption of some of the states;1 but much linguistic instruction may be derived from the lists. That of the Geografia Tibeta preserves, no doubt, except perhaps in Pa-sti and the first vowel of Nos. 1 (Lcog- for Lcag-) and 6 (Lceg- for Lcog-), the correct spellings of the names. Rockhill's representation of the Lha-sa pronunciation diverges from orthodoxy in the second syllable of Tro-jyab, where general authority would demand -kyap: Rockhill has perhaps lapsed into 'that form of this official language spoken in eastern Tibet' (p. 263). The Lama is similarly influenced in regard to -jyab and to Jya- in his Jya-kha: also his vocalism (Trufor Tro-, -tse, -je, for -tsi, -żi; Me- for Smi-; Kon-ser for Khangsar); Leu-rgo for Lo-dgu, and the r-Prefix (for d) in the lastnamed, are characteristic of E. Colonial Tibetan; the e of -ten and Tsen- is common to the latter and Lha-sa. Baber's spelling, based on oral communication, has further features of the E. Colonial, namely, (1) palatalization of consonant before r in Chro-, Cra-, Djum-, Cran-go-, Dje-go, (2) insertion of i after a palatal in Djiu.

¹ The Geografia remarks that 'but at present there are not more than thirteen'.

	1 22		- COLICIA GLIMAN	**	83
Dr. Tafd	Jag-la Wa-se Co-skiab (Kreciu 1) So-mo Zuń-kak or	Kun-kan Cok-tsi Dam-ba Wok-je (or ° śe) Bra-sdi (Ba-di,	Ba-ti) Ba-wan Rge-si-tea Rar-dan Tsan-la Muping	Kuń-sar (or ° ser) Ma-zar Cań-gu Be-ri, Be-rin Cu-wo	Ba-tañ Li-tañ Der-gi
Baber	Djia-la (1) Chro-siop (10) So-muh (7) Zur-ga (9)	Djiu-tse(tzů) or Ciu-tzů (8) Tam-ba (6) Wo-je or Go-je (4) Cra-tin (13)	Pa-wan orPa-un(12) Ge-śie (11) Rap-ten Tsen-la (5) Djiai-kha (3) Djum-ba (2)	Khun-sar (15) Ma-zu or Ma-ze (14) Cran-go (17) Pe-re (16) Dje-gu (or go)	De-ge or Der-ge Me-li Djie-dam
Rockhill II	Ja-la (15) Tru-jyab (9) Sa-ma (6) Zun-ga (8)	Co-tae (7) Tam-ba (5) Wo-je (3) Tra-ti (11)	Pa-ti Pa-wan (10) Leur-go (13) Gi-śo-taha (12) Ra-ten Tsen-la Jya-kha (2) Drum-ba (1)	Kon-ser (17) Ma-zer (18)	 Me-li (14) Jye-dam (16)
Lha-sa pronunciation	Cag-la Tro-jyab Po(So)-mo Niñ-ga	Cog-tai Go-ži Dra-tiń	Lo-gu & Ba-bam	Ina or Hor-khog) Kań-sar Ma-zur Dra-mon Be-rim Dri-tu	Ba(Ba-than) Li-than Der-go Mi-li
Rockhill I	s of the Rayal-ron Leags-la (2) Khro-skyab (3) Po(So)-mo (13) Nin-hgag (15)	Lcog-rtsi (14) Hgo-żi (12) Brag-stiń (17)	Lo-dgu & Ba-bam (18)	The Five Hor-pa States (Hor-sde-kha-lha or Hor-khog) Khań-gar Ma-zi Brag-mgo (capital Cango) Be-ri (Gri-htu (11) Tre-o (capital Cuwo)	Hbah (4) Li-than (5) Sder-gi (6) Smi-li (16)
Geografia Tibeta	1. The Eighteen States of the Rayal-ron 1. Loag-la 2. Lba-si 3. Khro-skyab 4. So-mo 5. Brdzun-bgag Nin-hgag (15)	6. Loog-rtse 7. Dam-ba 8. Ho-gži 9. Mdo-li 10. Pa-sti	11. Ba-bam 12. Dge-si-taha 13. Ha (Hwa?)-hwa 14. Lon-taa 16. Rab-brtan 16. Bean-la 17. Rgyal-kha 18. Ḥgron-bu		Hbab Li-than Sde-dge Mi-li

Ge-śie, (3) vocalization of post-consonantal y in -śiop, Djia-, Djie-. But Dr. Tafel, where he is not (in Ba-di, Ba-ti) recording a non-local form, affords clear evidence of (1) local survival of initial group khr- (Kreciu), br- (Bra-sdi), (2) final guttural (Jag-, -kak, Cok-, Wok-), m (Dam-, -wań), n (Żuń-, -dan, Tsan-), (3) non-insertion of i after palatal (Jag-, Cok-, Rge-śi-), (4) palatalization of guttural before y (Kretschiu), (5) loss of -ń (Bra-sdi). Thus we have in the lists first-hand evidence of phonetical divergence between Lha-sa Tibetan, E. Colonial Tibetan, and local Hsi-fan. The survival of -b (Lha-sa -p) in E. Colonial -jyab (-śiop) can be observed also at Tse-kou (tson-diob, 'thunder', tsa-diob, 'root', jre-tob, 'sow rice' (hdab)); but it was not everywhere so, as we see from the official title, ku-tsha (= sku-tshab, Rockhill, p. 220, n. 1), in Der-ge and the Hor-pa country: the place Draya is Brag-gyab.

In No. 18, the *Muping* of Rockhill, Tafel, and others may be connected with the *Sbrin-pa* of Rockhill's first list: in the latter the phrase *Nan-chen-pa* is possibly a pure error, being a Tibetan attempt to render the Chinese name (Ming-cheng) of the Tachien-lu state (No. 1): or was it intended as a claim to suzerainty over Muping (No. 18)? Rockhill I, *Nin-hgag*, seems to be an error, being, according to von Rosthorn, the chief place in the Pati state.

From the mainly Chinese spellings used or noted by von Rosthorn (R) and Messrs. Edgar (E) and Fergusson (F) and from the Manchu spellings in Dr. Haenisch's work (H) but little can be gleaned. But, since these last go back at least to the times of the wars of A.D. 1746–75, they may be recorded in a note with initials as here indicated and with insertion of two spellings given by Captain Gill.² The final b of Khro-skyab (No. 3) is preserved in the Chinese Chossüchiapu and Manchu Cosgiyab; the final g/\dot{n} of

Dr. Haenisch's No. 1 Cucui is perhaps the town Su-ching (north of No. 10): he groups together under one head Nos. 4-6 and includes (as Kungsa and Mašu) two of the Hor-pa states and, further, the Yūko nomads.

¹ Tib. gnan (or nan?)-chen?

² 1. Chala (F), Ming-jeng (H) (Chinese Ming-cheng-ssū of Rockhill, Ming-techeng of Dr. Tafel); 2. Wassu (REF), Wassi (H); 3. Chossūchiapu (R), Chos Chia (E), Chosschia (F), Cosgiyab (H); (4) Somo (REFH), Su-mu (Gill); 5. Sungkang (R), Rtsung Kang (E), Rungkang (F), Sunggak and Zunggak (H), Ru-kan or Ju-kan (Gill); 6. Chok'ochi (R), Choga Chi (E), Drukagi (F), Jokżai (H); 7. Tangpa (R), Damba (EFH); 8. Wojih (R), Okśi (H, with note of Hog-ghi in a Tibetan inscription and of modern pronunciation Wok-shih and Wo-zh); 9.—; 10. Pati (R), Badi (E), Bati (F), Burakdi (H); 11. Pawang (R), Bawang (EFH); 12. Keshetsa (R), Gaishechia (F), Gebáiza (H), Dr. Stötzner Gossetscha; 13-15.—; 16. Zanla (H); 17. Giyalung (H); 18. Mup'ing (R), Muping (FH).

Brdzun-hgag in all; the initial Br- of Brag-stin in Manchu Burakdi (= Dr. Tafel's Brasdi). Mr. Fergusson's variant, Drukagi, of Lcog-rtse, conceals, perhaps, some old local name: see his map.

The inclusion in the lists supplied to Rockhill and Baber of the Hor-pa states and some others may be due to the fact that the number '18' was traditional, while in course of time some of the original constituents had lapsed or been absorbed, so that even the original designation 'the 18 states of the Rgval-ron' had ceased to be understood and had been altered into the form reported by Rockhill, inconsistent and inappropriate though it is. This could not have occurred but for a feeling that all the states mentioned belonged somehow together, which is intelligible if all had been included in the old non-Tibetan 'Women's Kingdom'. The inclusion of Der-ge (Sde-dge), north of the Hor-pa states, has followed suit, perhaps with equally good reason. For the further inclusion of Smi-li (Mi-li) in Rockhill's two lists and of Jue-dam (Chung-tien, Baber Tcia-tam), to the south of Mi-li, in that of the Lama, not the same reason could be alleged, since that state appertained perhaps to the old Mi-ñag country; but some excuse may be seen in the fact, recognized by the Geografia Tibeta, p. 46. and also linguistically apparent, that the Mi-li people, like the Mi-fiag, were 'not real Tibetans'. The name-forms are significant in the same way as those of the Rgyal-ron; E. Colonial consonants in Crango, Cangu (Lha-sa Dra-)1 and Dje-go (Lha-sa Dri-), vocalization of y in Diie-dam, and altered vowels, -an > -on, -un, in Kon-ser, Khun-sar, -i > -e in Ma-ze, Pe-re, Me-li. The g in Die-go = Tre-o is reminiscent of the Khams pronunciation of sprehu, &c., as stre-gho &c. Of Brag-mgo we have in Hodgson's Tango, whence came the Hor-pa man whose dialect he has recorded, and in the Dango of the traveller Pandit A-K (Report, §§ 157-8) two further variants, representing a Lha-sa or central Tibetan, not local native, pronunciation.

But we have still to take account of the second difficulty, which consists in the presence of loan-words from Tibetan in the several dialects. It may be illustrated by the six lines of a song quoted by Dr. Tafel (ii, pp. 232-3). The song, which Dr. Tafel says is half in High Tibetan, half in Chin-ch'uan (Rgyal-roń) language, is given, with (approximate) translation as follows:

¹ Dr. Stötzner gives (p. 268) Kianggu, and for Ma-zi/Ma-zur 'Matse (Mazzar)', with loss of -r, as noted supra, p. 78.

rdyalsa (= rgyalsa) powrang Leui re bdyardyal tschung dyen newsa ba sgo di sgo tsa ne gui re naschdien sdang mu nesgo dsche (= kri) tschü sgor gari tschin tsen re dschra sgor gari yalwa go.

'Firm stands the castle in L(e)u. Tigers from the darkest woods lie as watch-dogs behind the great and behind the little gate, and all round, all round wind the mountain streams. As defence screen rise all round the steepest crags.'

Here, Dr. Tafel informs us, yalwa is Tibetan yolwa, 'curtain', 'screen', and di = Tib. chen, 'great', tsa = 'small', dschra = Tib. brag, 'precipice'. But, writing the lines as if transliterated from Tibetan,

rgyal-sa-pho-bran-Lehuhi-re

sgo-di-sgo-tsa-na(?)-khyi-re nags-rgyan(?)-stag-mo-ni-sgo(skyon ?)-byed enu-sgor-ga-ri-rgyal-mtshan²-re brag-sgor-ga-ri-yal-ba-go

we see that rgyal-sa, 'royal residence', pho-bran, 'palace', sgo, 'gate', re, 'is', nags, 'forest', rgyan, 'extensive', stag-mo, 'tigress', sgo-byed (or skyon-), 'make a door (or guard)', chu, 'water', 'river', sgor, 'at the gate', ri, 'mountain', rgyal-mtshan, 'banner', are likewise Tibetan. The lack of a translation prevents an interpretation of line 2. It is indeed evident that di, 'great', tsa, 'small', qui, 'dog', are related to Gyarung ka-hti (Rgya-ron ko-ktie) 'great', Gyārūng ka-hchai (Rgya-ron ko-kcie), 'small', Gyārūng khi (Rgya-ron khi), 'dog'; but these are only pronunciations of the corresponding Tibetan words, chen (gcen). chun (cun, gcun), and khyi, which in similar forms can be found in neighbouring languages; they may indeed be genuine native derivatives of the original words; but tchra for brag, which is certainly not such, but is an Eastern Colonial pronunciation, casts upon these also a suspicion of Tibetan origin, more especially as they lack (perhaps excusably in poetry) the syllabic prefixes characteristic of the Rgyal-ron. Possibly the only really local form in the song is ga-ri, 'mountain' (Tib. ri), which has the Prefix: and even the ri may be merely Tibetan, since for 'mountain' we have a really native word, Gyarung ta-vet, Rgya-ron ta-wa,

Not an imaginary trait: for an actual parallel see Fergusson, p. 194.
 Lha-sa pronunciation gyen-tehen.

These facts, according with the above quoted statement of Mr. Fergusson and partly with that of Rockhill,1 suggest that in the Rgyal-ron vocabularies there may be a large percentage of Tibetan loan-words, of different periods, accumulated during the many centuries of intimacy. The numeral system has been penetrated, and in one dialect (von Rosthorn's Hanniu), which behaves, as Conrady has remarked,2 like a Tibetan dialect, even the specially Tibetan bdun has been adopted (as dae? = Yün-nan dai). Thus the Rgyal-ron dialects may in some points have, as Dr. Wolfenden suggested, a spurious appearance of antiquity:3 instances have been noted by Dr. Wolfenden where a Tibetan consonantal Prefix has through the insertion of a vowel acquired the semblance of a syllabic Prefix: a rather certain instance is Jyā-run ki-tiak, 'l', which is Tibetan gcig, with insertion of i after g and tiak < ciak < ciiq, with E. Colonial Tibetan insertion of i after the palatal c in accordance with No. 4 supra (p. 77).

In Hodgson's vocabularies there is, as Rockhill states, not a little that may have been taken, early or late, from Tibetan; and in dealing with the phonetical and etymological history of the dialects we risk treating, as it were, Latin derivatives in English as basis for etymological comparison of the two languages. It is, for instance, not unlikely that—

Thochū khak, Gyārūng kūc-cēk, Mānyak da-kha, = Tib. khag, 'bitter':

Thochū rkwi, Horpa ka-msyūr, Gyārūng kū-mchūr, Jyā-run ke-mśār, 'handsome' = Tib. khyur, 'entire';

Hörpa sgū-sgo, Gyārūng kūc-cūr, Mānyak da-cū = Tib. skyur, 'sour':

Thochū jam = Tib. hjam, 'sweet';

Gyārūng ka-mhar, 'sweet' = Tib. mhar.

were originally obtained by borrowing. 4 This large matter must, however, be reserved for treatment on an adequate scale.

¹ For further references to comprehension or use of Tibetan speech in outside areas see Baber, p. 82; Johnston, pp. 222, 267–8; Tafel, ii, p. 230.

² P. 531, following von Rosthorn's article.

³ JRAS, 1928, pp. 897-8, Outlines of Tibeto-Burman Linguistic Mor-

phology, p. 141.

⁴ Borrowings from Chinese have been noted in the Rgyal-ron dialects by von Rosthorn and Wolfenden, and it seems that we may perhaps add the Gyarung words chidi, 'this', hadi, 'that', chidu, 'here', hadu, 'there', with Thochu cho, 'here', hāto, 'there'; possibly also some interrogatives with ha- in Manyak and Menia.

Hsi-fan languages: criteria and list

But it will not take long to discover in the dialects features which, being nowhere traceable in Tibetan, afford proof of independence and, in so far as they are common, serve to establish a group. The most obvious of these are—

- (a) In the numerical system: the use of forms which may be generalized as a, snis/snis, ka/ga, for the numerals '1', '7', '10', where Tibetan has everywhere gcig, bdun, and bcu, or their descendants. For '1' a form ta/ti also is widespread. For '10' and '100' it is usual to say 'one 10', 'one 100': this idiom, unknown in Tibetan, is possibly of Chinese origin.
- (b) Among pronouns: for 'thou', 'you', forms with a dental nasal, na, &c., are employed, while Tibetan has khyod, khyed, and derivatives therefrom; for 'he', 'that' we find tha, but in Tibetan kho, khon, khon-ta, de; there is also evidence for an interrogative tha (in Manyak also a tha, 'not') and for a pa, 'this'.
- (c) As regards syllabic Prefixes: some of these, as in living use in the Rgyal-ron, but also observable in the other three dialects, were noted and discussed by Hodgson; subsequently, with wide references to similarities and analogies in other branches of Tibeto-Burman speech, the matter has been treated by Conrady, Wolfenden (Outlines . . . , passim), and others.
- (d) In the general vocabulary: there are notable words, prom, 'white', mo, mon, 'sky', 'sun', na, 'good', not found in Tibetan; less essential are the words for 'iron', generalizable as sorm or somr (Mongol temur, Turkish timir), though absent from Tibetan, which has a lcags unevidenced in the four dialects. Attention would bring to light other non-Tibetan terms (e.g. tsha, 'goat', for Tib. ra) and preferences among terms which in Tibetan are synonyms.

On applying to all the dialects not already dismissed as Eastern Colonial Tibetan the criteria represented by the above particulars we obtain a result which may be exhibited in a table, the dialects being (in geographical arrangement, mainly from north to south):

(a) Amdo and Go-lok dialects: Thōchū (Hodgson), Dzorgai and Kortsè (d'Ollone, Nos. 41, 42), with d'Ollone No. 39 (region

¹ Eine indo-chinesische Causativ-Denominativ-Bildung, pp. 35 sqq.

of Sung-p'an) and the 'Outer Man-Tzu' of Gill (numerals and a few other words recorded by Terrien de Lacouperie, Languages of China before the Chinese, §§ 176-7).1

- (b) Hörpa (Hodgson).
- (c) Rgyal-ron dialects: Gyārūng (Hodgson), Rgya-ron (von Rosthorn, 4 dialects, Wassū with Mup'ing and Wojih, Pati (a few words), Pawang (3 words), Hanniu (a few words)), Jyā-run (Wolfenden), Dge-śi-tsha.²
- (d) Mi-ñag country: Mānyak (Hodgson), Menia (Baber), Mu-nia (Davies), with d'Ollone, No. 38 (region of Ya-chou).
- (e) Pa-U-Rong Hsi-fan (Johnston).
- (f) Mi-li State: Muli(Njong) (Johnston), Prü-mi (Davies).
- (g) Tsa-ron (upper Salween river north of latitude 28°): Mélam

¹ Gill's 'Li-fan Man-Tzū' (§ 174) has E. Colonial Tibetan numerals: the 10 other words show some non-Tibetan admixture.

* By this term is indicated the dialect of the numerals recorded, along with a few other words, by Dr. Haenisch, op. cit., p. 71, where the dialect is not named. The designation may be justified on the ground that the dialect is evidently the one so named by Dr. Laufer, op. cit., p. 26, whose materials for 'Jyāruh' and 'Gešits'a' were based, as he mentions (p. 10), upon his own 'collectanea made in the field'. Except a few words cited on pp. 14-15, 28-9, 36-7, of the article here referred to, those materials were perhaps never published; but evidently the dialect belongs to the Dge-ši-tsha state, whose name Laufer applied to it.

It is not obvious why Dr. Laufer affirms (p. 26) that Hodgson's 'Hôrpa' is the Gešits'a, 'a peculiar Tibetan dialect spoken in the territory stretching from Dawo to Kanze in the north-western part of Sze-ch'uan'. The region so defined is, in fact, the Hor-pa country (see supra, p. 15 and n. 5); and the man minutely examined and described by Hodgson (pp. 138-9) was 'a Hôrpa of Tángo, west of Gyárúng towards Amdo'; Tángo is the Hor-pa state Dango/Chango/Tchrango = Brag-mgo mentioned supra (pp. 83, 85). The place was visited and described by Pandit A-K (see Report on the Explorations of Great Tibet and Mongolia . . . by J. B. N. Hennessey, Dehra Dun, 1884, p. 62 Dángo), Rockhill (pp. 260), and Tafel (ii, pp. 190 sqq., Tschanggu): it is mentioned by Stötzner (p. 268, Kianggu), who visited Dawo, as had been done previously, from Dge-ŝi-tsha, by Fergusson (pp. 205 sqq.); it is between Dawo and Kanzé.

Dge-ŝi-tsha (capital Dam-tung, see view in Fergusson, p. 194), the most westerly of the Rgyal-roń states, is separated from Dawo and Chango by a high mountain range (see maps in von Rosthorn, p. 525, Fergusson, Tafel, ii, p. 224, with note 3, and Stötzner). Its dialect may therefore approximate to that of the Hor-pa states, and this seems to be the fact: Dr. Laufer had, no doubt, reason for thinking that Hodgson's 'Hōrpa' vocabulary holds good for it; but it does not follow that it does not hold good primarily for the far more extensive and important Hor-pa country; in fact, we may rather regard the Dge-ŝi-t "haas a dialect of Hor-pa.

(Tibetan)	,1, (goig)	(unpq)	(pcq)	'11' (bou-goig)	'20' (ñi-ŝu)	'100' (brgya)
Amdo and Go-lok Théchū 41 (Dzorgai) 42 (Kortsè)	a(-ri) a e0	sta(-rē) štie štū	ha-dű(-rē) a-dió a-dúi	2-t-50 21-t-50	gmi-na-so niu-so	a-kši a-kši
39 'Outer Man-Tzü' Hör-pa	6 ā(r-gu) rā	skić śne(r-gu) zne	a-dñó kha(dr-gu) sgā	khū-tyi	ner (or ne)-sā na-skā	e-cőh rhyá
Gyaring Gyaron Rgya-ron	ka-ti t-rki	kū-śnēs ko-śnēs	sih styie or setie	śa (for šta)-tie	kin-nis-si ko-ne-ŝtie	paryë
Rgya-ron (Pati)	ko-tie ci	ko-śne daeņ	8i ped	celc-ci	nie-še	
Jyā-ruń Dge-śi-tsha	kitiak zi	ke-śnes znie	ści(ścio, °ā) zra	ścio-tik ŏwró	ke-ne-ściń ńwda	poryă 6-zò
Menia Menia Menia	tā(-bī) ta	skwi(-bi) śan	oč(<ti)-ci(-bi) chi(<ti)-chi< td=""><td>thsa-ta</td><td>nā-cā(-bi) na-tsa</td><td>tō-jō ta-jin</td></ti)-chi<></ti)-ci(-bi) 	thsa-ta	nā-cā(-bi) na-tsa	tō-jō ta-jin
Mu-nia 38 Pa-U-Rong	dji to(-pi) ta	65 gmin(ñin ?)(-pi) dun	(< thss) ho sö(s'ö ?)(-pi) ka(-den)	si-ti(-pi)	gne(ñe ?)-áő ña-ka	hin dio ta-ra
Muli(Njong) Prū-mi **sea-ron**	中市	hnó, hnyi hni	ka(-to) a(-ten)	kn-ti	na-ha	運
Mélam Loutse 24 ", 26 Lu-tzü	kig ti kie	śeńi seńi seńid	ti-tsel ti-c-tsel tsel	ti-tsel-kig	a-ñi-tsel a-ñi-tsel	ki-śia chia
	ti-(ku)	śe(-ku)	ho-u(-ku)	ho-tié(-ku)	ñi-hô(-ku)	tié-bé

(Tibetan)	'Thou' (khyod)	'He', 'That' (kho, khoni-ta)	'White' (dkar)	'Sky' (gnam-mkhaḥ)	'Sım' (ñi-ma)	'Wind' (rlun)
Amdo and Go-lok Thōchū 41 (Dzorgai) 42 (Kortsè) 39	[kwå, kwē]	[kwāň-thň-ca]	phyokh consa con	mahto mo mo mo-ta	mun mon mon mosm me-ŝi, mo-ŝa	mozyū ('air') muhuso muhodze mo-o
Guter Man-1zn Hör-pa Raval-ron	III	[vjā, vjya]	phrū-phrū	[koh]	[gma]	West con
Gyärüng Rgya-roń (Wassú) Rgya-roń (Pati) Rgya-roń (Hannin)	[sān-rē] no	[gnā-pos, wa-tū] ka-prom [tenchie] ko-prom	ka-prom ko-prom	tú-môn te-mű	[ke-ni]	[ta-H]
Dge-si-tsha					[ktst]	
Manyak Menia Mu-nia 38	na pag	##	[dal-lū] [da-lū] phri sam-ba	mah na-khañ-mo moñkele	[hi-ma] [hi-mi] [he-mi] min-tsa	mërda mar mu muh'i
Mt.li Muli(Njong) Prů-mi			tr'on-mö	me-fii	[m.m]	m-m]
Nélam Nélam Loutse 24 Lu-tzů Yin-nom	na na	[aug] [koméio]	hoñ	[nam] [nam] mu	[nam-loń] [nam-loń] mat-u [nam]	[nam-bon]
35			nz-nl-nd	na-ka-mű	[hi-mi]	mossě

- (Desgodins, a few words), Loutse (Desgodins), Loutse 24 and 26 (d'Orléans), Lu-tzū (Davies)—the Loutse = Lu-tzū people of the Tsa-ron.
- (h) Yün-nan (d'Ollone, No. 35). This dialect, belonging to the region of the confluence of the Ya-lung river with the Yang-tse, is the southernmost (c. lat. 27°) of the dialects reported as 'Si-Fan'. The paucity of the available vocabulary does not prevent a recognition of some features as non-Tibetan.

Notes

1. Suffixes: The -rē appended in Thōchū to the numerals 1-10 may be = Tib. re, res, 'one by one', 'time', 'times'. The -r of 'Outer Man-Tzū' is, no doubt, as Yule has observed (p. 128), the same word. The additional -gu in 'Outer Man-Tzū', identified by Yule with the -kū of Hodgson's Gyāmi and subsequently by Terrien de Lacouperie (§ 177) with the very common Chinese classificatory ko, similarly used with numerals, is proved to be Chinese by its very wide occurrence, being found also in Mo-so and as far south as No. 35 (Yūn-nan). The -pi of No. 38 definitely associates the dialect with Mānyak (Mi-nag), whereto geographically, being of the region of Ya-chou, it is adjacent.

The -dū of Thôchū ha-dū, '10' = Go-lok a-dū, a-dū, a-dūō, which will also be identical with the -den, -te, -ten of Pa-U-Rong ka-den, Mi-li ka-te, a-ten, is perhaps a word having the same signification as the tham-pa, which Tibetan dialects in general append to '10', and sometimes to the

higher decads and '100'.

- 2. 'Seven': The Thôchũ and Go-lok forms with st-, št-, and šk- (but 'Outer Man-Tzū' šn-), and likewise the Mānyak skwi (erroneously questioned by Baber, p. 102) may be derived from a stn-/skn-, resulting from the original sn-/sn, or possibly snw-/snw-, which accounts for the innumerable sn-, s-n- (but Kanaurī stiś), hn-, n-, sr-, s-τ-, forms found all over the Tibeto-Burman field. The señi, &c., of the Tsa-ron will be another derivate.
- 3. 'One 10', 'One 100': This locution, exemplified in the table by the forms with a-, &c., ta-, &c., and represented also by Hodgson's Gyāmi i-shsa, i-pē, can be found, further, in Lo-lo, Kioutse and Lissou-Li-so.
- 4. 'Ten': It is difficult to account for Gyārūng sih, si, Rgya-roń (Pati) si, except upon the supposition that they are borrowings of Chinese shih, earlier sib, found in many other languages. Rgya-roń styie, Jyā-ruň scī, scīo, are, of course, = Tib. bcu>scu>sciu (insertion of i after palatal)>stiu, perhaps actually a loan-word, with Prefix acclimatized as in other cases. Hanniu pcō, like all the other Hanniu numerals, is clearly borrowed from Tibetan.
- 5. Hörpa and Dge-śi-tsha: A connexion between these would perhaps be more apparent if we had the Hörpa form of '11'. Evidently, however, the Dge-śi-tsha form öwrē (10-1) may contain an etymological equivalent of Hörpa rā, '1'. The latter is used by Tibetans in dating, ston-sla-ra-ba, 'the first autumn month', &c.; but it seems to occur also in Kan-su Chinese of

Le Thibet d'après la correspondance des missionnaires, pp. 372-7.
 Bulletin de la Société de Géographie de Paris, v (1873), pp. 144 sqq.

the eighth to ninth century and may be related to Chinese ir, '1' (modern i), of the same provenance. The Dge-ŝi-tsha ō-zē, 'one 100', with ze< jie< jie< jie< (br)gya (cf. Mānyak tē-jē, Menia ta-jia), suggests that Hōrpa rhyā is, as suggested infra, borrowed from Amdo Tibetan.

Neglecting for the present matters of phonology and referring for some particulars to the notes appended to the table, we observe that

- (a) Forms of a, '1', are confined (except for Dge-śi-tsha ö in ö-zè) to the Amdo-Go-lok area, where they are also used to constitute the expression 'one 100'. Forms of ta/ti, '1', occur in the number '11', and to the south they entirely replace a, and occupy the whole field, except for some borrowing of Tibetan gcig in the Rgyal-roń (rki, ci, kitiak) and in the Tsa-roń, where it is, doubtless, derived from the Tse-kou dialect of E. Colonial Tibetan: in Loutse 24 this kig is used to form the expression 'one 100' (ki-śia), which in the Mi-ñag region and farther south is formed with ta/ti.
- (b) For '7' forms derived from snis/snis are almost universal, invasion by Tibetan bdun being observable only in Pa-U-Rong and in the very much Tibetanized Hanniu dialect of the Rgyal-ron.
- (c) Forms of ga/ka, '10', predominate in the north (Amdo and Hor-pa country) and also in the far south (Pa-U-Rong and Mi-li): in the Hor-pa country and the south they are used also to form the decads, '20', &c.: the -so, -sā employed in Amdo to form the decads can hardly be the -śu of Tibetan $\tilde{n}i$ -śu ($<\tilde{n}is$ -cu) and very possibly is Chinese (see the Gyāmi numerals in Hodgson's vocabulary). With the exception stated the whole region from the Horpa country southwards uses for '10', '11', &c., and the decads etymological cognates of Tibetan bcu.
- (d) As regards the pronouns: na, 'thou', is almost universal, and its prevalence might be still more impressive, if forms for 'thou' were more frequent in the vocabularies. Tha, 'that', can be seen in Thōchū thā, 'that', thā-ko, thāk-lar, 'they', thāk-ci, tha-kūk, 'his', 'their', thūzga, thaksi, 'there' (Gyārūng has t in tis-dūi, 'then', Hōrpa ta in tab-deu, 'then'); Mānyak thi, 'he', thīē, 'this', thūsū, &c., 'thus', thilē, 'then', thūngā pu, 'there', &c.; Menia tha, 'he', thi, 'his', thou, 'they'; tha 'what?', in Thōchū thi-sni, 'when?', Gyārūng this-dūi, 'when?', this-ti (Rgya-ron this-tie), 'how much?', thū, 'what?'; pa, 'this', in Thōchū patino, Gyārūng pūz-dūi, 'now', Thōchū pa-si, Go-lok 41 pōs, Hōrpa pa-sni, Gyārūng pi-sni, Jyū-run pe-sne, Muli(Njong) pu-ne (?) 'to-day'.

(e) Derivatives of prom, 'white', mo, mon, 'sky', 'sun', are found over the whole area; and of mog, 'wind', over most of it: with mo, mon, the ancient words gnam, 'sky', and (g)ñi-ma, 'sun', are naturally concurrent. As regards na/ña, 'good', tsha, 'goat', somr/sorm, 'iron', and, further, ya, 'sheep', we may cite—

na/na, 'good': Thöchū nā-i, Hōrpa gāyē, gnor, Gyārūng ka-snē.¹ tsha, 'goat': Thöchū tsāḥ, Go-lok 39 sai, Hōrpa chē, Gyārūng kūs-so, Rgya-ron (Pati) ko-su, Jyā-run a-ke-sū, Mānyak tsāḥ, Menia chi, Mi-li (Prü-mi) che-da, Lu-tzū a-kie.

sormo, 'iron': Thöchū sormo, Go-lok 41 siémo, Hörpa cũ, Gyārūng śom, Rgya-ron śōm, Mānyak śi, Menia śe, Mu-nia śu, 38 śon, Muli(Njong) śe, Prü-mi śen, Loutse 24 śiam.

ya, 'sheep': Rgya-ron (Pati) ko-yo (Wassū ke-yo, 'goat'), Jyā-run a-ke-yū, Menia yo (Mu-nia yū, 'goat'), Loutse 24 a-yau, 26 yang, Yūn-nan 35 yo, Hsi-hsia ye (Laufer, no. 68).

Hsi-fan languages: use of Prefixes

The matter of the Prefixes may be here merely adumbrated. The old consonantal Prefixes, which have survived only lexically, without discernible function, may be exemplified by a few occurrences of r:

r- = Tib. r-:

Tib. rgyug, 'run': Gyārūng da-na-rgyūk (Hōrpa ta-mgyo, Mānyak ta-ci-mo-yū).

" brgyad, '8': Thôchũ kh-rã(-rē), Hôrpa rhiéé, Gyārūng oryēt, Rgya-ron waria(t), worio(t) (cf. the case of brgya, '100', supra, p. 90).

, rna, 'ear': Gyārūng ti-rnē, Rgya-ron t-rna.

" rmań, 'dream', &c.: Rgya-roń ko-rman, 'sleep' (Menia kho-me).

" rtswa, 'grass': Mu-nia rju (Menia ndza).

r absent in Tibetan:

Tib. gor-ma, 'stone': Horpa rga-mē.

" khyur, 'complete', &c.: Thochū rkwi, 'handsome'.

" ñan, mñan, sñan, 'listen': Gyärüng ka-rnyou.

,, bya, 'bird', 'fowl': Menia rga, Mu-nia rja, 'chicken' (rja-gu, 'egg'), Mi-li (Prü-mi) ju, 'chicken' (ra-gu, 'egg'), 35 hro-pu, 'cock' hro-ma, 'hen' (hro-kô, 'egg').

, mi, 'man': Gyārūng ti-rmi, Rgya-ron t-rmi, Hsi-hsia rme.

Add Tākpa (lihū)-ni ((lihū)-ma-ni, 'bad').

Tib. min, 'name'; Thöchū rmāḥ, Gyārūng ti-rmin, Rgya-ron k-rmien (Hörpa smen).

Similarly we find instances of g- (Thöchū kśi(-ri), '3' = gsum, &c.), b- (Hörpa na-pśē, 'tell' = bśad, &c.), m- (Hörpa ka-mthū, 'great' = mtho, 'high', &c.), h- (as nasal, Rgya-ron ci-mbō = hbar, 'blaze', &c.), and s- (Rgya-ron te-śni, 'heart' = sñin, &c.), both where present in Tibetan and where Tibetan has a different, or no, Prefix.

It appears that all the old Prefixes, except d (which indeed is given in Loutse 24 dgu, 26 daguen, Lu-tzŭ degu, '9', probably a loan of Tib. dgu—Thōchū has $rg\bar{u}(-r\bar{e})$), exist in the dialects, partly as in Tibetan, partly with exchanges among the Prefixes, partly where absent from Tibetan. There is nothing surprising in this, alternation of Prefixes by interchange and by presence and absence being familiar within the limits of Tibetan itself. Some of the cases of Prefix absent from Tibetan and some local preferences may prove interesting. The general conclusion that the ancient Prefixes were a common heritage of the whole group stands fast.

The syllabic Prefixes in the dialects reveal by two circumstances the fact that they belong to a later stratum: (a) they are never found following, but always preceding the old Prefixes, where these are preserved, and (b) they are in particular conjunctions omissible, as can be observed in the case of Jyā-run, where Dr. Wolfenden has furnished a continuous narrative which exemplifies the fact. In function also they differ from the old Prefixes, serving to mark grammatic classes of words, such as nouns, adjectives, verbs, numerals. The different languages are not uniform in their choice of Prefixes or in their employment of them severally.

The available materials enable us to detect the following (vowel normalized as a):

a-, ka-, ta-, da-, na-, wa-, ya, and, in the Rgyal-ron, sa- and (Hanniu) ci-, yi-,

and we may note occurrences in the languages severally. Thochū:

- a- in Verbs (a-dz, 'eat', ā-thī, 'drink' = Tib. za, hthun, &c.).
- 2. ta- in Verbs (ta-sēħ, 'kill' = Tib. bsad, &c.).
- da- in Verbs (da-gac, 'strike' = Menia na-ka, &c.).
 Go-lok (41, 42, 39):
 - 1. a- in 41 a-cl, 42 e-śi, 'month' (Rgya-ron ti-e-tsla, Tib. zla-ba).

- ka- 'Outer Man-Tzŭ' kō-ā-dre, 'hot', kō-a-sti, 'cold'¹
 (Thōchū styū, Jyā-ruṅ kā-mī-stē-a), kā-zye, 'eat' (Tib. za,
 Li-Fan Man-Tzū gna-dze).
- 3. da- in 42 da-kö, 'go' (41 kö-śe, Tib. hgro).

Hőr-pa:

- ka- in Adjectives (ka-chi, 'long' = Gyārūng ka-sri, Tib. (s)rin).
- 2. ta- in Verbs (ta-śē, 'kill' = Thôchũ ta-sēh, &c.).
- 3. na- in Verbs (na-pśē, 'tell', &c.).
- wa- in Verbs (wa-thi, 'drink', wa-nzūn, 'sit' = Thöchū ā-thi, ā-jon, &c.).

Rgyal-ron (Gyārūng, Rgya-ron, Jyā-run):

- a- in Nouns (Rgya-ron ti-e-tsla, 'month' = Go-lok a-cl, e-śi, a-śia, 'flesh' = Tib. śa, &c.).
- ka- in Nouns (Gyārūng ki-ni, 'sun' = Tib. ñi-ma, &c.),
 Adjectives (Gyārūng ka-nak, 'black' = Tib. nag, &c.),
 Verbs (Gyārūng ka-rnyou, 'hear', &c.), and Numerals
 (Gyārūng ka-ti, '1', ka-nēs, '2', &c.).
 ga- in Rgya-ron ga-pa, go-mū, 'father', 'mother' (Gyā-

rüng ta-pē, tō-mō), may be different.

- ta- in Nouns (Gyārūng tā-rū, 'horn', ti-khe, 'mouth' = Tib. ru, kha, &c.), Adjectives (Rgya-ron te-sa-lo, 'hot' = Tib. tsha, &c.), Verbs (Gyārūng ta-zō, 'eat' = Tib. za, &c.).
- da- in Verbs (Gyārūng da-na-rgyūk, 'run' = Tib.rgyug, &c.).
- na- in Verbs (Gyārūng nā-sē, 'kill' = Thōchū ta-sēḥ, Hōrpa ta-sē, &c.).
- ya- in Gyārūng ya-cin (Rgya-ron na-chen), ye-yen, 'go', 'walk'.
- sa- (Causative) in Verbs (Rgya-ron ta-sa-zo, 'feed', Jyā-run sa-pkiab, 'cover up', &c.).
- (Hanniu dialect) ni- (<na-?), ci-, yi-, me-, mö- in Verbs (Rgya-ron ni-ndu, 'bring', ci-nthen, yi-nthen, 'drink' = Tib. hthun, me-ndü, 'sit down', mö-dru, 'take off (clothes)', &c.).

Mi-ñag (Mānyak, Menia, Mu-nia, 38):

- a- (Mu-nia only) in Adjectives (a-ni, 'few' = Tib. nun, a-bi, 'thin' = Menia ya-bu, &c.).
- We have here ventured to invert the meanings as given by Terrien de Lacouperie, § 176.

- ka- in Verbs (Menia kho-me, 'sleep', Rgya-ron ko-rman, khocuo, 'kill', kho-tha-cuo, 'do not kill').
- 3. ta- in Verbs (Mānyak ta-khi, 'give', &c.).
- da- in Adjectives (Mānyak dā-nā, Menia da-na, 'black', da-llū, Menia da-lu, 'white', Mu-nia da-śō, Menia ya-śe, Tib. (s)rin, 'long', &c.) and Verbs (Mānyak da-nwā, 'weep' = Tib. nu, da-ci, 'lift' = Thōchū ta-ci, &c.).
- na- in Verbs (Mānyak nai-jeu, 'sit' = Thōchū ā-jon, gna-jeu, 'eat' = Tib. za, Menia na-ka, 'beat', na-tha-ka, 'do not beat' = Thōchū da-gac, &c.).
- ya- (Menia only) in Adjectives (ya-nche, 'fast', ya-nche-ta, 'clever' = Tib. skyen, mkhyen, ya-śe, 'long', &c.).
- 7. wa- in Manyak wa-khi, ta-khi, 'give'.

Pa-U-Rong:

da- in du-ka, 'mouth' (Tib. kha, Gyārūng ti-khe, &c.).

Mi-li(Muli(Njong), Prü-mi):

- a- in Prü-mi a-lu-lu, 'small' (cf. Mu-nia a-tzö-tzö = Tib. chuń, 'small', Lo-lo i-tzö, a-tio, &c.).
- na- in Muli(Njong) ne-se, 'kill' (Gyārūng nā-sē, Mānyak na-sya, &c.).

Tsa-ron (Mé-lam, Loutse, Lu-tzu):

- a- in Nouns (Loutse a-sa, 'earth', a-na, 'ear', &c. = Tib. sa, rna, &c.), and Numerals (Loutse a-ñi, '2', a-som, '3' a-bli, '4', &c.).
- 2. ka- in Mélam ka-thin, 'large'?
- ta- in Nouns (Mélam té-kru, 'horn' = Hörpa k-rūm-bo, Tib. ru, Loutse 24 t-me, 26 t-mé, 'fire' = Gyārūng ti-mi, Tib. me, &c.) and Adjectives (Mélam te-ke, 'difficult' = Tib. kha, te-ni, 'little' = Mu-nia a-ñi, Tib. ñun).
- da- in Loutse 24, 26 de-gui, 'dog' = Tib. khyi.

In some of the above instances the word following the syllabic Prefix is probably a loan from Tibetan. Also, insertion of a vowel after one of the old consonantal Prefixes, whereby the semblance of a syllabic Prefix is created, is exemplified in—

Gyārūng śē-pri 'ape' (Tib. sprehu), ko-rok, 'ant' (Tib. grog), Rgya-ron waria(t), worie(t) (Tib. brgyad, Khams vrgyad), Gyārūng paryē, '100' (Tib. brgya), Mélam sela, 'moon', Loutse 24 śeñi, 26 señi, Lu-tzū señid, '7' (snis), Loutse 26 daguen, '9' (Tib. dgu), sena, 'nose' (Tib. sna), sola, 'month' (26 sela, Tib. sla, zla), Lu-tzū sela, 'moon', a-beli, '4' (bli).

It seems likely that some of the coincidences of Rgyal-ron syllabic Prefixes with old consonantal Prefixes in Hsi-hsia (in Tibetan script), as noted by Dr. Wolfenden (JRAS. 1931, pp. 47–52), e.g. Hsi-hsia $g\tilde{n}i$, 'sun' (Tib. $\tilde{n}i$, $g\tilde{n}i$) = Gyārūng ki-ni, &c., may really be of this nature. The question would then arise whether on the Rgyal-ron side the cause was an intellectual misunderstanding or a phonetic difficulty.¹ It must, however, be admitted that some of the Rgyal-ron Prefixes, e.g. ka-, ta-, are of such extensive use as to render coincidences of the above kind inevitable.

The particulars elicited are by no means casual: on the contrary, some of them have an enormous extension in Tibeto-Burman generally. This is true, for instance, of the pronoun na, 'thou', and the numeral snis, '7', concerning which it may be sufficient to refer to the Linguistic Survey of India, vol. I. ii, 'Comparative Vocabularies'. For a, '1', and ga/ka, '10', we must look to the regions where China, Tibet, and Burma meet. The a seems to be found in Sing-pho (ai) and in the 'North Assam group' (Aka); but perhaps the most interesting recurrence is in the Min-kia of the Ta-li-fu region in Yün-nan, where the numerals are almost entirely Tibeto-Burman. For '1' we there find a, but also i, the latter probably Chinese; but for '100', '1,000' ('one 100', 'one 1,000') the forms are $a-p\ddot{o}l$, a-khin, in which the second syllables are Chinese (pa(r) and ch'ien), while the a may be a survival from Tibeto-Burman antiquity.

The expressions 'one 10', 'one 100', seem nowhere to occur in Tibetan; but they may be discoverable in the Himālayan dialects, Thulung (Wolfenden, JRAS. 1935, p. 641), Simbu, Yākhā, Rāi.

It may be noticed that even in the Rgyal-ron we have both on its eastern extremity ('Outer Man-Tzũ' ā(r-gu), '1', kha(dr-gu), i.e. kha(r-gu), '10', khā-tyi, '11', &c.) and on the western (Dge-śi-tsha o-wre, '11', ŏ-mnĕ, '12', ŏ-su, '13', &c., ŏ-zĕ, 'one 100'), evidence for a, '1', and ga/ka (Thōchū ha), '10': and this suggests that the forms cognate to Tib. bcu, '10', or Chinese shih, which dominate the remaining area, are intrusive.

As regards mon, 'sky', we may cite Mo-so mun, men, mö, mu,

¹ Conversely, the instances of an extra prefix d in Rgyal-ron words (drmi, 'man', drna, 'ear', &c.) cited by Laufer in T'oung-pao, xv (1914), p. 107 n., are nothing but the well-known syllabic prefix ta/te, &c., with the vowel lost (Rgya-ron trmi, trna, &c.).

&c., Lo-lo m'o, mu, mū, Kioutse ga-mōn, mu-lang; then Ka-chin la-mu and in Burma mow, mow-kong, mu-tang, mog, mo, &c.; while the rarer meaning, 'sun', is seen in Lo-lo mū-ñi, &c., Li-su mū-tsa. In the case of prom, 'white', we have the r surviving (partly as l) in written Burmese phru, 'white', and, with the meaning 'silver', Sing-pho kūm-phron, Ka-chin kum-pron, Nung kum-prā, Lo-lo phru, Aka Lo-lo and Lahu plu, Pyen plū; the r is lost in Mo-so phèn, phè, pha, pe, Lo-lo a-phyu, piu, &c., Li-su phu, phu-ca-ma, Lahu phu, Petsen pin, Loutse 24, 26 hong, Min-kia pō, pe, 'white', and Lo-lo piu, Li-su phu, 'silver'. There is loss of r with palatalization (prom>crom>ciom>tiom, kiom, in Lo-lo chon, a-tiu, a-thu, a-kiéu, tchuoh, tlo, &c.). Here again the partial survival of -m (as -n or -n) in languages which otherwise have lost their final consonants is noticeable.

The syllabic Prefixes also, especially a- in adjectives, are found to some extent in the Lo-lo and other border languages; and possibly they would be more evident in the living speech than in the vocabularies, whence they may be absent as 'omissible': and, of course, in some remoter Tibeto-Burman groups, e.g. the Miri-Daflā-Mishmi group, north of Assam, and in the Nāgā groups they are plentiful or abound.¹ But nowhere in the Sino-Tibetan frontier languages could we hope to trace such a constellation as has been elicited above.

Hsi-fan languages: phonological derivation from early Ch'iang

It is perhaps, therefore, not venturesome to assume a concurrence in the conclusion that the languages under consideration constitute a distinct group. They extend northward continuously from just about latitude 28°2 to Amdo and the Koko-nor region, which is, as we have seen, the geographical area of the Hsi-fan languages proper. Therefore the group may reasonably be designated 'the Hsi-fan group'. But we know from definite Chinese information that the whole area, as far south at least as the Rgyal-ron, the 'Women's Country', was occupied by Ch'iang peoples, while concerning the Mi-fiag region, more to the south, we have no statement. The continuity of the linguistic evidence justifies us in contemplating the group as essentially a 'Ch'iang group'.

No. 35 is isolated farther south, circa lat. 27°.

¹ The ka- prefix used in Mishmi with the first four or six numerals and to a less extent in N\u00e4g\u00e4 dialects is reminiscent of the Rgyal-ro\u00e1.

In this conclusion we are confirmed by the evidence furnished by the Hsi-hsia, even in the present limits of the knowledge obtained of it. For that the Hsi-hsia, language of a Ch'iang dynasty and people, must have been largely or mainly Ch'iang could hardly be doubted; and in Hsi-hsia are found some of the above discussed marks of our Hsi-fan group, namely a, '1' (Nevsky, No. 78, also li, kli, gli, Nos. 1, 239, and gteh, 'alone', '7', No. 300); śa, gśaḥ, '7' (No. 56); kha, dghah, dgaḥ, '10' (No. 145); tha, 'he', 'it' (Nos. 71, 225); mo, 'sky', 'sun' (No. 7, Laufer, No. 34); dhaḥ, 'good' (Nevsky, No. 199); ye, 'sheep' (Laufer, No. 68); to which we may add ldiḥ, lda, zlaḥ, lha (Nevsky, No. 93, from bldyi = Tib. bżi), '4' = Hörpa hla, Tākpa pli, Loutse a-bli, &c., and rme (Tib. mi, myi, Nevsky, No. 39), 'man', with r-Prefix, as in Gyārūng ti-rmi, Rgya-ron t-rmi.

It has been remarked that in some particulars, notably the preservation of ga/ka, '10', and its employment in the formation of the decads, there is agreement between the northern and southern dialects, interrupted by the Rgyal-ron area, which is also the area of widest and still living activity of the syllabic Prefixes. In case it should eventually appear that from the ancient Ch'iang the syllabic Prefixes were absent, it may turn out that the Ch'iang population of the Rgyal-ron was superimposed upon another race which has contributed to the dialects the syllabic Prefixes. For such a substrate population we could conjecture no other name than Man, which is still applied by the Chinese to the Rgyal-ron people, supposed to represent the original native race of Ssū-ch'uan. In this connexion the apparently actual tradition of the Man-tzŭ people, that they were originally immigrants, may deserve consideration.

According to the etymologies propounded above the Hsi-fan languages show in many cases an advanced stage of phonetical degeneration, natural in view of their modern date. But a mass of the changes of consonants can be brought under the rubrics specified in connexion with the E. Colonial Tibetan, namely, (1) palatalization before r, and y, and (2) loss of finals.

As from brag, 'rock', we get in E. Colonial Tibetan jra(g) > cra(g) (Lhasa tra(g) > ca(g)) (Central Tibetan ta(g)), so from p(h)rom we get in the Hsi-fan languages—

(a) non-palatalized forms: (1) with retention of the r, Rgyal-ron

Fergusson, op. cit., pp. 247 sqq.

- prom, Hōrpa $phr\bar{u}$, Mu-nia phri, (2) with r>y Thōehū phyo(kh), (3) with loss of r, Pa-U-Rong phu-li-li;
- (b) palatalized forms: (1) with retention of the r, Muli(Njong) tr*on < cron, (2) with loss of r, Go-lok con, (3) with c>ś, 38 śon, śam, (4) with ś>h (probably not ph>h), Tsa-ron hong.

From this palatalization the dentals t, d, &c., are not free either in E. Colonial Tibetan or in Hsi-fan, as we can see from E. Colonial (36 cru, 37 cu, 40 cuk) and Hsi-fan (Hōrpa chō, Menia chu, Rgya-ron ko-co, Mi-li (Prü-mi) chro, Mu-nia kho, Lu-tzŭ kru, &c.) forms of drug, '6'.

This palatalization has not spared the group sr-, as we can see in the case of $sri\hat{n}$, 'long' = Tib. $ri\hat{n}$ (but $sri\hat{n}$, 'extend'): (a) non-palatalization in Gyārūng ka-sri, 'long', 'tall'; (b) palatalization in Hōrpa ka-ci (< cri < sri < sri), 'long', ce-ci ($sri\hat{n}$ - $sri\hat{n}$), 'far', Mānyak $s\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}$, Menia ya- $s\bar{e}$, Mu-nia da- $s\bar{o}$ [Mo-so $s\bar{o}$, Lo-lo $s\bar{o}$, a- $s\bar{o}$], 'long'. The instance illustrates also, in the Mānyak, &c., forms, the modifications of vowels, especially i, which in both groups of languages are apt to occur after r, e.g. in d'Ollone 36 $cr\bar{o}$, 37 $c\bar{o}$, 38 $ts\bar{e}$, 40 ce, 41 $t\bar{u}eis$, Mélam $s\bar{i}ru$, $ki\bar{o}$, $< s\bar{r}u$ = Tib. gri, 'knife'.

As regards consonant before y, we have seen in the case of brgya, '100'---

- (a) non-palatalization in Hōrpa rhyā, Rgyal-ron paryē, pria, with elision, frequent in Amdo Tibetan, of g in the group rgy—cf. Hōrpa rhiēē, Rgyal-ron oryēt, waria(t), &c. = Tib. brgyad, '8';
- (b) palatalization in Thöchū and Go-lok a-kśi, a-kśö, &c., Rgya-roń (Hanniu) żdie, Mānyak tē-jē, Menia ta-jia, Tsa-roń ki-śia, chia, &c.;
- (c) probably rjia > ra in Pa-U-Rong ta-ra, and (r)śia > he in 35 hé (cf. 35 hé, 38 hié pi = brgyad, '8');
- (d) in the degenerate Mu-nia and Yūn-nan 35 a change \$ > h, yielding hé, hin, '100'; cf. ho-u, ho, '10', hen, hé, '8'.

Here also we have in E. Colonial the palatalized forms 40 cia, '100', 37 dié, 40 dtié, '8'. With labials, by-, &c., the palatalization is in Tibetan, of course, normal—bya, 'bird',>ja, ca, in E. Colonial>jia>cia>šia.

The palatalizing process need not have been everywhere the same. In E. Colonial Tibetan the development, which is regular, is certainly as in pr->cr->c-, because the intermediate stage, cr-.

is normal in some dialects, the cause having been, no doubt, a palatal quality of the r. But in Hsi-fan the change might have been earlier and might, as suggested by Thōchū phyo(kh) < phrom, have been as pr > py-, so that the r-palatalization would be a case of the y-palatalization, and, where it did not take place, the surviving form would be pr-, or py-, or p- (with loss of y, as in western Ladaki bi < byi). But this cannot have been, at any rate everywhere, the case in Hsi-fan, because we have exemplified palatalization with survival of the r, and the same is seen in the neighbouring border languages, e.g. in Mo-so $jr\acute{e}$, 'mule' = Tib. drehu.

What, however, is clear is that, once the stage p < pr is reached, there is no longer a basis for palatalization of a group pr-, since the pr- no longer exists: hence, if a palatalization has subsequently occurred, it must have operated upon loan-words containing that group.

The case of my->mi-, or my->mny-, ny->mni-, ni-, may be exemplified by forms of Tib. mig, myig, 'eye', which illustrate also the fate of final g. In this word the -g is still pronounced both in Lha-sa Tibetan (mik) and in E. Colonial (mig), though normally -g is lost, in the former except in certain collocations, lak-pa, &c.: the survival may be due to the i vowel, since we find also Lha-sa śik (gzig), 'panther', and E. Colonial (Tse-kou) kig (gcig), '1'. In 'Tangut', which retains the -q, as -k, nik, 'eye', is not exceptional: in Mo-so, Lo-lo, &c., the -g is lost. From myig>miig>miag we get Gyārung tai-myēk, Muli(Njong) mia (Li-su mia-sö), Menia mie, Mu-nia mie-lu, Pa-U-Rong, byu [Mo-so miö, mö, Lo-lo myet-sao, &c.]; from mnyig Rgya-ron (Hanniu) mnyi, Manyak mni [40 ñihi, Lo-lo ni-ssa]; from mniag Rgya-ron te-mniak, te-mniok, &c., 38 nia, Mi-li (Prü-mi) nie, Loutse nie [Yün-nan (Ku-tsung) nie, Mo-so nya-lü, Lo-lo nie-sö, &c.]. Similarly from mi, myi, 'man', we get n-forms, Thôchũ nãh, Go-lok néé, no, 40 no, nié, Pa-U-Rong nyi ['Tangut' mni, Yün-nan (Ku-tsung) na]. It is noticeable that the mn-, n-, forms of these words are not found in E. Colonial Tibetan dialects, except where exposed to Hsi-fan influence.

These examples may serve to show what variety of phonetical form has in the Hsi-fan dialects, no less than in E. Colonial Tibetan and the neighbouring border languages, resulted from operation or non-operation of the palatalizing process and from vowel complication due to vocalization of y. Any further consideration of this matter, more especially as regards irregularities and loan-

words, must perhaps be left to the study of the languages severally: is, for instance, Hōrpa $hy\bar{o}$, 'house', directly descended from the original khyim, or has it passed through the palatal stage of the adjacent Rgya-ron chiem, chom? Hōrpa, a dialect exposed more than any other to influence from E. Colonial Tibetan, has palatalization in $ch\bar{c}h$, 'road' = Thōchū grih, Gyārūng tri, and in $ch\bar{o}$, '6', < drug; and, on the other hand, the palatalization of ky-, khy- is universal in E. Colonial Tibetan (Amdo dcyil = dkyil, &c.), as also in the Rgyal-ron (Chyon = Khyuh, &c.); so that the answer is provisionally uncertain. What is here requisite is to attain, if possible, a conception of the phonological situation in the Hsi-fan language at as early a period as can be inferred from the common features of the modern dialects.

Early Hsi-fan phonology: comparison with Hsi-hsia Here we may propound some deductions as follows:

 In early Hsi-fan the palatalization of consonants followed by r had not taken place.

As regards pr- this follows from the forms of prom, 'white', as set out supra. Confirmatory examples of other groups are:

Tib. gru (Lha-sa tru, 40 juo), 'boat': Hōrpa grā, Gyārūng brū, Mānyak gū.

Tib. grog-ma (Lha-sa tro-ma, Tse-kou cru-ma), 'ant': Thôchũ tũ-khrā, Hôrpa skhrō, Gyārūng ko-rok [Mo-so cö, ca-i, Lo-lo bo-yo, bu-ma, &c.].

Tib. drug (Lha-sa truk, E. Colonial cru, cu, cuk), '6': Thōchū khata(-re), Go-lok töh, tüiü, 'Outer Man-Tzŭ' śtu(r-gu), Gyārūng kū-tōk, Rgya-roń (Hanniu) ktrü, Mānyak trū-(bi), Pa-U-Rong tru, Muli(Njong) thru.

-palatalization in Hōrpa chō, Rgya-ron ko-co, Menia chu, Mu-nia kho, Mi-li (Prü-mi) chro, Loutse 24 kron, 26 ke-u, Lu-tzū kru [Mo-so khia, ca, &c., Lo-lo khu, &c.].

Tib. brag (Lha-sa tra, E. Colonial cra, ca), 'rock': Rgya-ron pra(k) (also in the place-name Bra-sdi, Burakdi), Loutse a-pra, perhaps Thöchü s-pyāh (cf. phyokh = prom).

-palatalization in the Hōrpa (E. Colonial Tibetan?) place-

name Crango < Brag-mgo.

Tib. hbrug, 'dragon', sbrul, 'snake' (Lha-sa druk, dru, E. Colonial ju, jrö, &c.): Thöchū brigi, 41, 42 būyö, 39 buś, Hörpa phri, Gyārūng kha-bri, Jyā-run kha-uri, Mānyak brū, Menia bar, 'snake' [Mo-so żö].

2. The palatalization of consonants before y, in Lha-sa of labials only, in E. Colonial of gutturals also, is a matter of some difficulty. Apparent examples of non-palatalization are:

Tib. bya (Lha-sa ca, E. Colonial śia, śiū, sū, żū, &c.), 'bird', 'fowl': Thöchū ma-rwō (?), Gyārūng pyē-pyē, Rgya-ron pai (-ku, 'cock', -mu, 'hen'—Dr. Tafel begu).

-palatalization in Hōrpa gyō (?), Mānyak hā (?), Menia rga, Mu-nia rja (rja-gu, 'egg'), Muli(Njong) ro (<rjo, cf. 35 hro-pu, 'cock', hro-ma, 'hen'), Mi-li (Prū-mi) ju ('chicken', ra-gu, 'egg').

The r- prefix in this word, *rbya, is interesting.

Tib. byi-ba (Lha-sa ci-wa, E. Colonial śiua, tsüi, śio, jeh), 'rat':
Rgya-ron pui, Jyā-run pē-yī [Mo-so fu, Lo-lo véh, hè, &c.].

Tib. khyim [Lha-sa and E. Colonial use khañ], 'house': Thöchű kih, 42 ki, Loutse kiim, 24 kime.

-palatalization in Go-lok 41 tié, Hōrpa hyō (?), Dge-śi-tsha yo, Gyārūng chēm, Rgya-ron ciem, Jyā-run chom, Muli (Njong) jih, Loutse 26 jim. [Mo-so ji, jié, ghi, &c., Lo-lo he, hen, hié, ké, &c.].

To quote cognates of khyi, 'dog', is hardly decisive, there being in regard to that word much evidence of a w (khwi or khwyi): the same is possible in regard to bya, 'bird', Himālayan (Thulung) pwa, &c.—see Linguistic Survey of India, 1. ii, 'Comparative Vocabularies'. The non-palatalized forms of khyim also might come from *khim.

Considering the widespread palatalization instanced in the cases of bryyad, '8', and brgya, '100', and its universality in E. Colonial Tibetan and in the Rgyal-ron (' $Jy\bar{a}$ -run', &c.), we are inclined to attribute it to early Hsi-fan in general, in the case of gutturals, at any rate, if not of labials.

 Insertion of i after original palatals, unknown in Lha-sa Tibetan, but general in E. Colonial, often with change of the palatal to guttural or dental, had not taken place in early Hsi-fan.

Tib. bcu (Lha-sa cu, E. Colonial kiu, kio, co), '10': Jyā-run sci (?), Mānyak cē-ci(-bi) ('one 10'), Menia chi-chi, Mu-nia ho (<so?), Loutse 24 ti-tse (1), 26 ti-etse (1) ('one 10'), Lu-tzū tsel, Yūn-nan 35 ho-u(-ku) (?)

-insertion of i in Rgya-ron style, Jyā-run scio, sciā [Mo-so tse, tsö, &c., Lo-lo tse, tsö, cie, ci, &c.].

Menia rg. is r with guttural trill (Baber, p. 78).

It is, however, to be remarked that forms of bcu perhaps did not exist in early Hsi-fan, which had ga/ka: Gyārūng siḥ, Rgya-ron (Pati) śi, may be Chinese.

Tib. chu (Lha-sa chu, E. Colonial kiu, khié, chüo, csiu, &c.), 'water': Go-lok 41 cuo, 42 cu, Gyārūng ti-chī, Rgya-roń te-chi, Jyā-ruń tē-chī, Menia jo, jui (?), Mu-nia ndzō (?), Pa-U-Rong dji, Muli(Njong) jō (?<jiu).</p>

-insertion of i in 38 cèo, Mi-li (Prü-mi) cyö.

Tib. bśad (Lha-sa śe, E. Colonial pset, śie, &c.), 'expound', 'tell': Hōrpa na-pśē, Gyārūng ta-cē(n), Mu-nia mo-śa (?)

-insertion of i in Jyā-run uśiat (also uśat), 38 śié [Mo-so śö, śa-do, Lo-lo do-śi, śuo, do-chö, &c.].

Tib. śiń (Lha-sa śiń, E. Colonial śań, śi, śin, siń, śim, &c.) 'tree', 'wood': Go-lok 39 se, Gyārūng śi, Rgya-roń śē ('wood'), Mānyak sā-poḥ (= 36 śim-pon, 37 sin-po), 38 saim-bu, sen, Menia śi, Mi-li (Prü-mi) śe, Loutse śiń.

-insertion of i in Rgya-ron śie ('tree'), Menia sie ('wood'), Pa-U-Rong and Muli(Njong) hsieh. [Mo-so sè, sö, &c., Lo-lo śi, sö, &c.].

Tib. śog, śog-bu (Lha-sa śu-gu, E. Colonial sio, śu-gu, &c.), 'paper': Rgya-ron śou, 38 śo-u, Menia śo.

The instances are in favour of posteriority of the insertion, which has sometimes (e.g. in 'Tangut' dziam-ba, 'cheek', < hjiam-ba < hgram-pa) affected even secondary palatals. In the Rgyalron it is perhaps even modern, since it is absent in the names of the 'Eighteen States', and it extends sometimes to non-palatals (Rgya-ron zie, 'gold', < ser, Jyā-run zia, 'eat', < za) no less than palatals (a-ŝia, 'flesh', < ŝa, chia, 'wine', < chan). In 'Tangut' it appears before u (liuk, 'sheep', < lug, rgiu, '9', < dqu). In general, however, it is old enough to have become disguised in composite vowels, such as ö, eo, ūo, uo, much complicating the vowel systems.

4. A casual change $\dot{n}>w$ was suggested by Laufer (p. 105) for Hsi-hsia. In Hsi-fan some occurrences of this, originally perhaps only before o or u, may be seen. Examples:

Tib. lha, '5': Thōchū wā(-rē), Go-lok 41 uè, 42 rhoō, 39 uō, 'Outer Man-Tzŭ' wa(r-gu), Hōrpa gwē: Dge-śi-tsha mha, Gyārūng ku-ngnō, Rgya-ron kō-mū (<-mwo<-nwo<-no), (Hanniu) no, Jyā-run ko-mhō, 38 nan(-pi), Pa-U-Rong na, Muli(Njong) no, (Prü-mi) nwa. [Mo-so ua, Lo-lo nwa, &c.].

Tib. dnul (Lha-sa nü, E. Colonial nöl, nu, nou, &c.), 'silver': 41 uon, 42 mivu (mvu), 39 u, Menia mwe: Mu-nia nu, 38 on, Muli(Njong) nou, (Prü-mi) ni, Loutse 24 non, 26 nui, Lu-tzu nul, 35 nnu. [Mo-so nu, nö.]

5. Similarly casual, involving perhaps a change $\tilde{n} > j$, which occurs in eighth-to-ninth-century Tibetan manuscripts from Kansu, are forms = Tib. $\tilde{n}a$, 'fish':

Tib. ña (Lha-sa ña, E. Colonial ña, ñain), 'fish': Thōchū iżāḥ, Go-lok 41 że, 42 gże, 39 że, Hōrpa, hyā, Gyārūng chū-nyo, Mānyak yū, Mu-nia zö, 38 ceñi, Mi-li (Prü-mi) cö.

Cf. Hsi-hsia żu (Laufer, No. 5).

6. In regard to final consonants it is necessary to exclude an -n which in Thōchū, Hōrpa, and the Rgyal-ron is found in verbs (Thōchū ā-jon, Hōrpa wa-nzūn, 'sit', Gyārūng da-cin, ya-cin = Hōrpa ta-śin, wa-śin, 'go', &c.): this is probably a formative. Thōchū has also other final consonants (nūkh, 'ear', phyokh, 'white', aśpic, 'hunger', &c.), due to absorbed formatives or to compounds.

Of -s after consonants, otherwise wholly lost, the Go-lok has curious survivals in 41 zierk, 42 zierk, 'tongue' = Tib. ljags, and 41 itierk (<iciags<cags</is> = Tib. sańs, 'nose', where -gs<-ns has ancient parallels in Kan-su Tibetan. The Go-lok forms may be borrowed from Amdo Tibetan, where we find 'Tangut' khtsirk-ta = Tib. gzigs. After vowels -s is lost, except in the Rgyal-ron, where -nēs, '2', and -śnēs, '7', are clearly native words.

Of original -l there is no trace, and loss is evidenced in:

Tib. yul (Lha-sa yü), 'village', 'country': Thôchũ wễ-khã, Gyārũng wô-khyũ, Mānyak hũ.

Tib. bśul, 'path': Go-lok 41 jueu (= żüö?), 42 guéu, (gé-u?) and in the above-cited forms of dnul, 'silver', and sbrul, 'snake'.

Loss of -r, not infrequent in E. Colonial Tibetan and attested in the Hōr-pa-Rgyal-ron country by forms of place-names (Kungsa, Kanzé, &c. supra pp. 83, 85 n.), is seen in Go-lok 41 saé, 42 sō, Menia śa = Tib. śar, '(sun)-rise', and in 39 se-u, Rgya-ron zie = Tib. gser, 'gold' [Lo-lo śi, śō, &c.], and probably in forms of dmar, 'red', and mar, 'below'. Several dialects preserve it in Tibetan loan-words, and the Rgyal-ron perhaps in some others.

Of the nasals -m has everywhere, in prom, 'white', khyim, 'house', and in sam, som, '3', retained traces. Of -n and -n, the

former very, but not absolutely, persistent in E. Colonial Tibetan, there is no Hsi-fan survival, except in words with initial, or quasiinitial, m (Thōchū min, Gyārūng ka-sman, 'ripe', Hōrpa smen,
Rgya-ron ti-rmin, k-rmien, Mānyak min, 'name', and forms of
mon, 'sky'). Loss of -n has been exemplified in the case of śin,
'tree'.

The three occlusives, -g, -d, -b, where preserved in Lha-sa or Amdo Tibetan, are all become tenues, -k, -t, -p: in Khams and Tse-kou they remain voiced. In Lha-sa we have la, but lak-pa, 'hand', and so forth, while E. Colonial Tibetan has in general la-pa in place of lak-pa ('Tangut' lokhwa). It is conceivable that the alternation -g/-k, &c., was originally due to Sandhi and that in some dialects, e.g. Lha-sa, -k was preserved, but -g lost.

In Hsi-fan widespread loss of -g, -d, -b, is attested by:

Tib. phag (Lha-sa phak-pa, E. Colonial pa, pha), 'hog': Thöchū pi, Go-lok 41 pa, 42 pa, 39 pe, Hörpa väh, Rgya-ron pa, phā, pa(k), Mānyak wāh, Mu-nia va, 38 pa, Loutse 24, 26 ua [Mo-so bu, Lo-lo vi, &c.].

Tib. bsad, gsod (Lha-sa se, E. Colonial sé, &c.), 'kill': Thōchū ta-sēḥ, Hōrpa ta-śē, Gyārūng nā-sē (Jyā-ruṅ sia(t)), Mānyak na-sya, Muli(Njong) ne-se [Mo-so su, Lo-lo si, sié, &c., Burmese sat].

Tib. chibs, 'horse': Go-lok 41, 42, 39 (h)iü, Rgya-ron (Hanniu) chie.

Also in many forms of nag, 'black', and those of brgyad, '8', bśad, 'tell', cited supra. Outside the Rgyal-ron the only traces of original-g, -d, -b, are seen in Thōchū nyik, 'black', nyag-wō, 'crow', and the Go-lok nierk, &c., quoted supra: these may, like Loutse 24 śiot, 26 śiet, Lu-tzū cied, '8', be due to special causes, such as borrowing. In the Rgyal-ron there is a number of apparently unborrowed final tenues (ta-yak, 'hand' = Tib. phyag, ta-vet, 'mountain', &c.), pronounced for the most part with 'checked', or even imperceptible, utterance.

To the early Hsi-fan in general, therefore, we may attribute loss of (a) -l, -s, -g, -d, -b (that of -r may be later), (b) of -n and -n, except after initial or quasi-initial m; but in the Rgyal-ron -s after vowels, and -r, -g, -d, -b, have been partly maintained.

7. Concerning vowels, which are likely to have undergone various local modifications, such as have been noted by Laufer (pp. 99–103, including several instances of -a > -i, u > o), or such

as are found in old Tibetan manuscripts from Kan-su (e.g. some cases of -ag, -ab, > -eg, -eb, and of e/i, -u/-o, alternations), or such as are frequent in E. Colonial Tibetan (e.g. -on, -on, <-an, -un, -er <-ar, -e <-i), it is difficult to make general statements. But in certain respects the early Hsi-fan was probably free from infections which have greatly complicated the vocalism of later periods: it seems to have lacked

- (a) the general Tibetan Umlaut of a, u, o before -d, -n, -l, -s;
- (b) the complexes ia, ie, ii, io, iu, due to vocalization of postconsonantal y and to insertion of i after palatals, with the consequent developments.

In this way the vowel-system may have been appreciably nearer to that of written Tibetan. As individual particulars which have ancient analogues, we may mention (1) Thochū rmāh, 'name', <rman < rmin (ef. 'Tangut' śan for śin, 'wood', and confusion of</p> snan and snin in the ancient manuscripts), and Gyarung sman, 'ripe', < smin; (2) Rgya-ron smou, 'medicine', ka-rnyou, 'hear', <sman, (s)ñan; (3) Thôchũ pi, 'hog', Mānyak phwih, 'tooth', < phag, swa(so), Thôchũ kśi(-ri), Mānyak si(-bi), 'Outer Man-Tzū' kśi(r-gu), Menia si, Pa-U-Rong zi < gsam, elsewhere only som, sam, &c., (cf. Hsi-hsia rni, &c., < rna, 'nose', &c. (Laufer, p. 99), and ni, nih, ñe (Nevsky, No. 217), 'equal' < mñam).

In the numeral system there have been many mutual accom-

modations (Systemzwang) of vowels.

The phonetical inconsistencies in the individual Hsi-fan languages contrast with the appreciable regularity of E. Colonial Tibetan, e.g. in 'Tangut' and Tse-kou, where most of the vocabulary is consistently derivable from the literary Tibetan. This may reasonably be ascribed to penetration by Tibetan of different periods and localities. The general outcome of the above considerations represents a stage of Ch'iang somewhat anterior, if we may judge, to the Hsi-hsia. In the latter Dr. Laufer allows as Prefixes only the g-/k-, r-, m-, in g-num, k-num, 'sky', k-nu, '5', rni, 'ear', m-lu, 'worm', 'snake' = Tib. gnam (or dgun), lna, rna, sbrul: Nevsky has in Tibetan transcriptions many more, of which rme, 'man', seems to be a certain example. Of initial groups kr-, &c., Laufer has no examples, and Nevsky records only four obscure words, treh (No. 270), 'heaven', hrtri (No. 201), 'change', bldra (No. 315), dbri (?), also hbhih (No. 247), 'light': if in Hsi-hsia such an r had become y, as we might be led by the

instances, gye (No. 251), 'mountain' (<gri = Tib. ri), and hgye (No. 243), 'path' (cf. Thốchũ griệ, Gyarung tri, Hồrpa cẽệ) to think, then treh, 'heaven', may be nothing more than Chinese t'ien. Of palatalization before r, with loss of the r, there is a certain instance in chi (Nevsky, No. 101) < drug, '6' (cf. li, 'wind', ri, 'bone' = Tib. rlun, rus). Development of i after palatals is not apparent. The final consonants -n, -n, -m, -r are exemplified by Laufer, -n and -r also by Nevsky (Nos. 155, 187, 268; 55, 231, 279, 281, 333), though -n is lost in li, 'wind' = Gyarung ta-li, Tib. rlun. Thus not only -l and -s, but also -g, -d, -b had completely disappeared. It is true that Laufer does not admit loss of finals in Hsi-hsia and holds that, where lacking, they had never been present. But how is this to be reconciled with the variation -i/-a in Hsi-hsia equivalents of Tibetan a according as the latter occurs in an open or a closed syllable (ibid.)? How can we question the originality of the -g in Tibetan drug, '6' (Hsi-hsia chi), lag, 'hand' (Hsi-hsia la), phag, 'hog' (Hsi-hsia wo), nag, 'black', mig, 'eye' (Hsi-hsia mei), when, not to mention other Tibeto-Burman evidence, a language so remote as Burmese has khyok, lak, wak, nak, myak? or of -d in brgyad, '8', bsad, gsod, 'kill', represented in Burmese by rhac and sat? And how can we doubt losses of final consonants in Mo-so, Lo-lo, &c., languages known only in modern stages, when parallel losses, resulting very frequently in markedly similar forms, are historically demonstrated in the case of Tibetan, of E. Colonial Tibetan, and of Hsi-fan dialects?

Nam: some particular phonological particulars

The Nam language, older than the Hsi-hsia by about three to four centuries, is likely to have been exempt from some changes undergone by all the known Hsi-fan dialects. The hitherto certified specimens exemplify:

- (a) consonantal Prefixes, d (dgu), r (rma, rbeg), l (lcogs, ldeḥu, ldon);
- (b) initial consonants, \dot{n} ($\dot{n}al$), ts ($tse\dot{n}$), tsh (tshun), y (yab), \dot{s} and \dot{z} ($\dot{s}\dot{i}=\dot{z}\dot{i}n$), z and \dot{z} ($zu=\dot{z}u$), th ($thi\dot{n}$, thol);
- (c) initial groups, sk (skeg), consonant+y (pyi, bya, mye), consonant+r (kru, prom);

Perhaps also in chi, 'gall' (Laufer, No. 56) = Tib. mkhris.

- (d) final consonants, g (cog, rbeg), n (lton, thin), n (tshun, zin),
 b (yab), m (prom), l (nal, thol), and group gs (lcogs);
- (e) final vowel a (bya, rma), i (li), e (mye), u (zu), o (go, cho), or quasi-diphthong (tehi, ldehu, byehu), and dialectical alternation a/e (rbag, rbeg);
- (f) derivative byehu from bya;
- (g) formative te, lde, with tehi, ldehi, in which -hi seems to constitute an attribute.

We may also mention some contemporary non-Tibetan proper names of places (Bra-ma-than, Dra, Gro-pur, Zar-phur, Śo-ma-ra, Skyi-mthin, Bum-lin, Byar-lins), persons (Myi-rma-bu Ldam-śad, Mun-żag-tsa, Rgyan-nar), superhuman beings (Srad-po, Theg-leg, Pya-mans, Dre-da), and animals (Spur-bu, Than-prom, Skog-theg-to), which are phonologically similar and which, being all connected with the Skyi, i.e. Tang-hsiang, country, are likely to exemplify the Ch'iang speech of their period (seventh to ninth century, A.D.).

B. A LITERARY WORK IN THE NAM LANGUAGE

HAVING now, it is hoped, ascertained the general situation and character of the Nam language and some of its general features, we may approach the consideration of a text which seems to be in that language. The proof that it is in fact a Nam text has been outlined elsewhere,1 and it will be repeated with additional particulars infra (pp. 130 sqq.). The extraneous aids for the interpretation appear to be decidedly inadequate. The most promising of them is the Tibetan, of which the seventh-century pronunciation is known from its script, authoritatively and carefully designed, with the help of Indian teaching, to fit the language. To the kindred Nam language that script, which in the eighth century was in familiar use among officials and private persons in Tibet, is likely to have been applied with tolerable exactness; for we know that contemporaneously it was used with fair success to represent even Chinese, not to mention Central-Asian languages having alphabetic writing. The initial geographical remoteness of Tibet proper had given place to close political, administrative, and military connexions; and Buddhism in a Tibetan form commenced early in the eighth century to spread to Amdo. Hence the Tibetan scribes must have had constant practice in the writing of native personal names, which, however, they usually translated, and of topographical names, and of some common terms. There are also some few contemporary manuscript fragments in Tibetan, which, reproducing native folklore or religious compositions, may serve for orientation in regard to the interests, psychology, notions, and circumstances of the population.

In order to consider the problem somewhat systematically, it seems advisable to take up the several topics as they present themselves and accordingly to discuss in succession I. the manuscript and script, II. the orthography, III. the text, IV. the grammatical

system, V. the etymology.

¹ JRAS. 1928, pp. 630-4; 1939, pp. 194-6.

I. THE MANUSCRIPT AND SCRIPT

The manuscript, of which particulars are given in the annexed note,1 was among the collection procured by Sir Aurel Stein in 1907 from the walled-up monastery library in Ch'ien-fo-tung (near to Sa-cu = Tun-huang), in western Kan-su. It is in the form of a roll of the yellow Chinese paper (of the somewhat thicker kind) there in use during its period, which the Chinese writing on its verso enables us to identify with the eighth to ninth century A.D. The roll, which is fragmentary at beginning and end, is composed of sections pasted together. Its existence as a roll prior to the Tibetan writing on the verso is proved, not only by the ductus of the script at the joinings, but also by the continuity of the Chinese text recto. That text is the Sad-dharma-pundarika, 'Lotus of the Good Law', of which a portion corresponding to pp. 30-3 of the Tai-sho edition, about one-fifteenth of the whole (pp. 62), survives. If the roll, in its original completeness, contained the whole of the Sad-dharma-pundarika on one face, its length must therefore have been about 216 feet, the surviving part being of c. 16 feet 7 inches: such an extent is perhaps unparalleled.2 We are not in any case at liberty to attribute to the Nam text dimensions of that order; for the Chinese text may have been continued on a part of the verso, leaving at the end a blank space, found sufficient for the Nam text; or the roll may have been fragmentary prior to its second use or may have been cut down for that use; or the Nam text may have occupied only a part of the blank space: for all which alternatives parallels could be adduced. Hence it is not possible to estimate what proportion of the whole Nam composition has been preserved: probably, however, the loss at the beginning is not very great and that at the end perhaps less.

The 398 lines of Nam writing extend for the most part across the whole width of the roll. In one case there is a short line (1.61): and there is one instance (opposite II, 353-6) of omission repaired in the right-hand margin by writing in the lengthwise direction of

A 'gigantic roll' described by Dr. Hoernle in JRAS, 1911, pp. 471-3,

is of about 70 feet.

¹ India Office Library MS., Stein Collection A, received in 1926: paper roll, width 10 in., length 16 ft. 7 in., composed of sections pasted together longitudinally; rather thick, yellowish paper; edges worn; fragmentary at beginning and end; discolorations in places affected by damp.

the roll. The average number of syllables per line is 13 or 14. At the beginning, which is irregularly torn, the manuscript is much abraded, so that ll. 1–4 of the script are almost entirely illegible; while ll. 5–18 are in their left-hand half not much less obscure, and to a diminishing extent ll. 19–65 are similarly affected. The last six lines again, ll. 393–8, are obscure and also fragmentary. Both edges are somewhat worn and in places torn; and there are discolorations through moisture.

THE SCRIPT

The script is Tibetan, of a squarish kind, with some few peculiarities characteristic of the early period: the hand is rather coarse, the letters fairly large and wide-spaced. The words, nearly always monosyllables, are separated by short vertical lines, |, in place of the more usual (but by no means universal) points. At the ends of clauses the vertical line tends to be somewhat lengthened; and where a sentence (or verse) ends it is double, ||. More emphatic punctuations |||, || : ||, || : || mark, as in other specimens of Tibetan script, the terminations of paragraphs, chapters, and topics.²

There are somewhat numerous corrections by the original scribe, some obviously immediate, as when a first attempt is either crossed out or enclosed in a circle, after which the intended text proceeds, and others probably so, where a correction or addition is made below the line, in which case the exact point of intended insertion is not always evident. There are also many corrections by a reviser, frequently in the form of inking over, and there sometimes results a blur, intentional or otherwise. It is perhaps noticeable that the corrections include cases of omission or insertion of initial and final (after a) b, and final b, and of confusion of b and b as finals; also of final b and b, and b, initial b and b, and b, and b, and b.

With exception of M,', all the single consonant signs of the

¹ The sign for h has at its right top a small curve with rightward facing concavity; w is formed of this h superposed to a b; superscript i has frequently the 'inverted' (rightward turned) form; the left limb of kh is short.

For particulars see infra, p. 126.

Final h added II. 8, 75, 137, 173, 228, 234, 258, 290, 302, 327, 367, 384; crossed out I. 363. Initial h added II. 70, 81, 178; crossed out, 106, 143, 174. Final h added, II. 326, 378. Final g added, I. 147; changed to h, I. 361. Final h and r, II. 17, 163, 246, 302. Initial rg(rgg, rk) and rh, II. 237, 239, 301, 343, 358. Final u and o, II. 141, 302, 360, 381.

Tibetan alphabet proper occur in the text: accordingly we have:

The absence of \mathbb{W} , derived from Brāhmi a, which in Central-Asian and Further-Indian alphabets, in India too at certain periods, was employed also as a basis for initial vowels and diphthongs in general, is not made good by any other means: accordingly words with initial vowels, in Tibetan itself not very common, appear to have been in Nam non-existent. The subscript h, used in Tibetan either as a compendious way of writing postscript h or to indicate vowel length (perhaps via the former alternative, \bar{a} , &c., being ah, &c.), has in Nam probably only the former use and only with a. The post-consonantal vowels, including the 'reversed' i, are as in Tibetan. For final m, the anusvāra, m, is sometimes used.

The special forms employed in Tibetan to represent Sanskrit sounds, viz. the cerebral consonants, the aspirated mediae, and some others, do not occur in the Nam text: the absence of the subscript h as a mark of aspiration is noticeable, because in Tibetan transcriptions of Hsi-hsia words such an h is frequent.

The proportionate frequency of occurrence of the several initial consonants constitutes in one or two points a marked divergence from the Tibetan. In Nam w- (with $\hbar w$ -) is common, while in Tibetan it is rare: \dot{z} and z are so rare that it is questionable whether in the Nam language itself, unmixed with Tibetan, they existed at all: the instances are noted infra (pp. 167–8). Absent, further, from the Nam text are:

(a) the Tibetan conjunct signs for sg, ln, sn, cw, lc, lj, nw, sd, sn, lb, mr, tshw, zw, zw, zl, lw, św, hr, lh, of which about onehalf are in Tibetan itself quite rare; (b) some Tibetan combinations of two written signs, viz. b+k, b+rk, b+g, b+rgy, b+sg, b+sgy, b+c, b+ñ, b+t, b+rt, b+lt, b+st, b+d, b+ts, b+rts, dk, dh, dp, db, mkh, mch, mj, mñ, md, mn, mtsh, mdz. Mh occurs only once, viz. in mhar (l. 261). These are all, it will be seen, cases of the Prefixes b, d, m.

These deficiencies, due mainly, no doubt, to lack of the corresponding conjunctions and combinations in the spoken language, are balanced by additional:

- (a) conjuncts, skh,1 ty, dy, thy, rz, rś, rs, sc,
- (b) combinations, gk, gch, grt, gst, gld, gph, bph, gb(gbl), gm, dd
 (one occurrence, l. 95), sś, g-r, g-w,

Moreover, initial h seems to occur before nearly all single consonants, conjuncts and combinations; and the great majority of words have usually this prefix, whose occurrence, however, is so capricious as to defy discrimination.

² See infra, pp. 118-20.

¹ This occurs in old Tibetan manuscripts and documents, where also kh and other aspirates are frequently used after Prefixes.

II. ORTHOGRAPHY

EVERY language which has appeared in writing has in some degree an orthography, i.e. a normal written form; for a scribe who has once seen a word in a written form will not himself write the word without a consciousness of that visual appearance. On the other hand, no language has an orthography complete for all individual words that may appear in writing; because there must always occur expressions new absolutely or new as such to the scribe, for the writing of which the scribe depends upon a general rule or the general phonological values of his signs: thus a writer of English can extemporize a Preterite in -ed from any verb without having actually seen that Preterite and can write down according to his direct consciousness of the aural value of his signs, say, a foreign name which he has never seen, but only heard, and which may never have been written—an occurrence frequent with travellers in unliterate regions.

Some Central-Asian languages, e.g. the native language of the Shan-shan country and possibly the original native language of Khotan, may never, except as regards some proper names or casual terms, &c., have been written at all, written communications, if any, being exclusively in another medium. In other cases—and according to our information the T'u-yü-hun kingdom of the Koko-nor may be an example, the Chinese script having been in use—such writing as there is is in a foreign script.

It is unlikely that the Nam language during some eight centuries of close contact with China, and, for the most part, of Chinese domination, should never have been written at all: and, as we have seen, there were some instances of Chinese persons taking interest in languages of Ch'iang tribes, while, of course, there had been from early times an official department of interpreters.\(^1\) But the writing of Nam can hardly have been more than casual and in the makeshift Chinese script; for 'literature' the people had perhaps only songs and recitations, and 'barbarians' taking to culture would find it in Chinese. The Tibetan alphabet cannot have been applied to the Nam language before the second half of the seventh century A.D.

The scribe who wrote the Nam text was no novice: he had an expert, flowing, and probably a rapid, hand. Though his facility

¹ See Terrien de Lacouperie, Languages of China before the Chinese, p. 17, and supra, pp. 51-2.

may have been in writing Tibetan, it is practically certain that the Nam language was not being written in Tibetan characters for the first time. For an orthography is proved by the existence of the Berlin fragment in the same script and language with the same spellings, and also by a number of corrections in the manuscript which can have no object other than that of giving a normal written form.

From some of the corrections it is, further, apparent that the manuscript reflects a written original, the errors being of a visual nature.1 But there are many errors which were probably aural:2 in many cases a character is written and then crossed out, the correct form following at once; sometimes the incorrect character is only partly formed; these are immediate rectifications, and their large number, which can be paralleled in the case of a Tibetan text from the same source, demands an explanation. There are several instances of underline additions, apparently immediate, of the second element of a reduplication; and there are also errors, probably aural, of other kinds.4 It is credible that the copy was made from dictation and thus included both misreadings, momentary and otherwise, by the dictator, and mishearings, also momentary and otherwise, by the scribe.5 In any case the copy was certainly read at a later date by a reviser, or at any rate by some person, who has by over-writing corrected or made clear many mistaken or obscure characters or parts of characters.

Assuming therefore an orthographic intention in the writing, we must proceed to investigate the amount and kinds of irregularities which it exhibits: since all writings show some margin of irregularity, and in certain old Tibetan manuscripts (infra, pp. 130 sqq.) the margin is rather wide. In the Nam text the

¹ This applies certainly to the instances (supra, p. 113, n. 3) of confusion of rg-(rgy-) with rñ-.

² This may frequently be the case with omissions due to anticipation of subsequent words.

³ Ll. 14, 16, 28, 29, 92.

^{*} Notably the confusions of -u and -o (supra, p. 113, n. 3).

In regard to Sogdian manuscripts, also from Ch'ien-fo-tung, which have a likewise capricious spelling, a similar suggestion was made by the late Dr. F. Rosenberg (Bulletin de l'Académie des Sciences de l'U.R.S.S., vii Série, Classe des Sciences Sociales, 1931, p. 629). The case is the same with the Chinese manuscripts in Tibetan script: see JRAS. 1929, pp. 39-40. The normal Tibetan literary manuscripts and the more or less contemporary lithic inscriptions of Lha-sa are much more correct and, except for archaisms, manifest few abnormalities.

predominant variations, immediately recognizable as such, are as follows:

1. Presence or absence of initial h-: The great majority of the syllables in the manuscript have this prefix, which is found not only before single or conjunct consonants, clearly belonging to the root, but also before other Prefixes. This omnipresent phenomenon is so abundantly exhibited by the columns of the Vocabulary that it may be sufficient here to cite only a few cases selected among words having initial k in the root:

```
kehu-prom, 176, &c. = hkehu-prom, 177, &c.
kya-wa-ne, 162 = hkya-wa-ñe, 215, hkya-hwa-ñe, 339
kyu-ldon, 161 = hkyu-hldon, 339
kruhu-hpro, 321 = hkru-hbro, 221, &c., hkruhu-hbro,
294, &c.
rkabs, 272 = hrkabs, 271
```

Since the prefixed h- thus occurs, without dependence upon a preceding sound, both before initials of roots (here k-, ky-, kr-) and before apparently Prefixed r and s, it may be asked whether there are any situations from which it is excluded. To this inquiry we may reply that:

- (a) h- is not found prefixed to sñ, sp, sb, sm (sh, sg, sn do not occur), though it is to st, sl, sr, sts. It therefore seems likely that a labial tenuis or nasal after s- was inimical to its presence.
- (b) h-, though occurring freely before g, gw, gy, gr, gl, rg, rgy, does not occur before gk, gc, $g\tilde{n}$, gt, gd, gn, gph, gb, gm, gts, gdz, g-y, g-r, $g\dot{s}$, gs, i.e. in cases where the g itself is obviously a Prefix. Since, however, it is found before rgy- in cases where this may be derived from g-y (not gy) with the Prefix r, it seems that it was not the Prefixing of g as a fact, but the consciousness of its Prefixal character, that precluded the addition of the h-.

This leads to the further observation that:

skyim-hse, 69, &c. = hskyim-se, 18.

(c) h- is found alternating with g-: This alternation, which in cases such as:

```
hrah-hyos-hlam, 25, v. g-rah-g-yo-rbo, 27, hrah-g-yos-ge-
hsar, 26
g-rah-hyos-ge-hsar, 26, v. g-yo-hpud-hto, 28
stor-hdor-hyoho, 119, v. stor-hdor-g-yoho, 142
```

 $^{^1}$ For a list of words with g- Prefix, including cases of alternation with h- see pp. 163–4.

might, as concerns the verb hyo/g-yo be functional, as in Tibetan, cannot as regards the noun g-rah be other than orthographical or phonological. Other cases where no question of function arises are:

hmog-hee-rgyan, $52=\operatorname{gmog-hee-rgyan}$, 55 $\operatorname{gmog-hee-hsa}$, 55 rgya (and hrgyah)-hñi-ke, 53, &c. = rgyah-gñi-ke, 199 hdim(dim)-htshis (chis), 88, &c. = gdim-chis, 94 hldag-khri-khyag, $52=\operatorname{gldag-hee-rgyan}$, 52 hldag-nag, 129, &c. = gldag-nag, 136 hldag-hnag, 112, &c. = hldag-gnag (and nag), 129, &c. hri-sta-mehi, 311, $312=\operatorname{g-ri}(\operatorname{g-rihi})$ -sta-mehi, 312, 313, hrihi-sti-hyor-re, $300=\operatorname{g-ri-sti-hyor-re}$ 299

hpha-hiur-hiur, 60 = gphah-tsa, 60 háid-hrihi, 62 = áid-g-ri, 34.

In the last two instances, where hpha/gphah = 'father', and hri/q-ri = 'mountain', the impossibility of a difference of function is specially clear. The single occurrence of gphah might, in its context, suggest that at the beginning of a line of verse, or of a sentence, the q- has a preference: and in one or two other cases (hldag/gldag, 136, hmog/gmog, 55) some such explanation might apply. But it is impossible to carry it through; and, since dependence upon the sounds of the preceding word is likewise excluded, it appears that in these cases the scribes treated the choice of hor q as a matter of indifference. Since this must have been a consequence of the actual pronunciation, it seems to follow that the hwas some guttural sound which might sometimes be heard as a g. The use of hd, hb, in transliteration of Chinese to represent the Chinese initial n and m^1 suggests that the sound was a nasalization; and this may be confirmed by the fact that in one Tibetan manuscript from the same region hgi is written for gi after a nasal and there only. Furthermore, the sole trace in the Hsi-fan and other border languages of the ancient h- is in the form of a nasal Prefixed to consonants.2 The fact that in the Nam manuscript the h occurs before initial nasals as much as before other initials need not conflict with this interpretation.

(d) h-does not occur before the Prefix b, a fact, however, of not much significance in view of the rarity of the latter.

See supra, p. 76; cf. N'jeh = Hbri(-chu) and Njong = Hjan (pp. 2 n. 2, 72).

¹ See Maspero, Bulletin de l'École Française d'Extrême-Orient, xx. 2, pp. 32-3, and further instances, partly accordant, in JRAS. 1926, pp. 518-19, 1927, p. 296.

- (e) h- does not occur, or at least hardly ever, if ever, occurs,¹ before certain very common words, viz. dze, probably a preposition or particle meaning 'on', 'at', &c., ge, a particle, the sentence-ending particles hi, na, ra, and the sentence-ending, or correlative, particle ni; and this consistent non-occurrence is a clear indication of purpose in the use of the h-.
- (f) The h- has in some cases been inserted or crossed out after being in the first instance omitted or written.²
 - 2. Alternation of tenuis and aspirate:

hkah-hrdza, 296, v. hkhah-hrdza, 296. hkab-hdro, 106, v. hkhabb-hdro, 106. hko-rno, 53, &c., v. hkho-hrno, 189, 267 (rno). hkog(gsom°), 23, v. hkhog(gsom°), 21. kran(hldan°), 124, &c., v. hkhran(hldan°), 127. kru-hrgyan, 388, v. hkhru-rgyan, 187. hkru-hyog, 289, 324, v. khru-hyog, 321, 322 (hkhruhu). c-ch ca(hcah)-yan, 235, &c., v. hchah-yan, 242. can-sme, 262, v. chan-rdzum, 263. ci(hdag°), 259, 261, v. chi(hdag°), 260, 261. hee-hmu, 200 v. hche-hmu, 204. geeg(hso-hnah°), 234 v. gcheg(hso-hnah°), 111. t-th ta(stor°), 145, v. tha(stor°), 149. htań-hrdzo, 218, v. thań(hthań)-rdzo, 130, 132, 220. htar-phyan, 374, v. thar(hthar)-phyan, 348, 69 (pyan). tor(htor)-hbron, 216, &c., v. thor-hbron, 220. —— (g-ri°), 34, v. hthor(hrihi°), 62. htor(gse-hlad°), 240, v. thor(rñe-lad°), 235. htye(sta-hldyan°), 8, v. hthye(stah-hldyan°), 20. p-ph hpan(hrihi°), 290, v. hphan(hrihi°), 302. hpu-hkam, 83, v. phu-hkam, 130. pu-glo, 116, 135 (hlo), v. hphu-hklo, 40. hpu-hbos(hpos), 140, 266, v. hphu-hbos, 167, hpuhi(rgyeb°), 282, v. hphuhi(rgyeb°), 190. hpeg(swah°), 360, v. hphyegs(swa°), 176. hpom, 347, v. hphom, 147.

¹ The only exceptions are hge, 5, 8, 332.
² See supra, p. 113, n. 3.

por(htsah°), 291, v. phor(htsa°), 295. hpor(hnu-glano), 175, v. phor(nu-glano), 359. pyan(thar), 69, v. phyan(hthar), 348, 374 (htar). pyar-ma-swan, 341, v. hphyar-ma-hswan, 341. pyi-hse, 88, v. phyi-hse, 89, 98. hpyid, 339, 344, v. hphyid, 340. pyer(ldañ°), 65, v. phyer(hldañ°), 254. prom/hprom, 65, 128, &c., v. phrom, hphrom, 171, 172. ts-tsh tsa/htsa, (hthan-le°), 131, 220, v. tshah(hthan-le°), 219. tsur(hnah°), 391, v. htshur(hnah-hdih°), 391. htsog-hldan, 95, v. tshog-hldan, 95. htsors(hldag-nag°), 134, v. htshors(hldag-nag°), 130. —— (hbroň°), 219, v. tshor(hbroň°), 220.

3. Alternation of tenuis and media:

k-g
kehu(hkehu)-prom, 176, 361, &c., v. gehu-prom, 362.
hko-htoń, 212, v. hgo-gtoń, 210.
hkor-kla, 205, v. hgor-kla, 143.
hkyud(rdzo°), 220, v. hgyud(hrdzo°), 16.
hkri(hśi), 81, v. hgri(hśi°), 38.
hkroms, 387, v. hgroms, 64.
hklo(hphu°), 40, v. glo(pu°), 116.
c-j

Apparently no occurrence.

t-d

htah(hkhoh°), 328, v. hdah(hkho°), 329.
htor(gstor°), 143, v. hdor(stor°), 118, 142, &c.
htre(rgyed°), 248, v. hdre(rgyed°), 87, &c.
hltah(rgyed-ma°), 93, v. hldah(rgyed-ma°), 90, &c.
p-b
hpah-hko-htar, 371, v. hbah-hko-htar, 373, 386, 390.
hpu/hpuhu(htor°), 29, 64, &c., v. hbu(htor°), 33.
hpos(hpu°), 141, v. hbos(hphu°, hpu°, hpuhu°), 41, 266, 293, &c.
hpro(kruhu°), 321, v. hbro(hkruhu°, hkru°), 221, &c.
ts-dz

htsah(hdzo°, htso°), 30, 62, 73, v. hdza(hdzo°), 262.

4. Alternation of aspirate and media:

kh-g? khrom, 388, v. hgrom, 136, 223 (2).
ph-b
htor-hphu-hgru-dze, 62, v. htor-hbu-hgru-dze, 33.
tsh-dz
No instance.

5. Alternations between the two groups

e ch j ts tsh dz

(to be expected in all old Tibetan writings) is seen in-

c-ts: hcog-hram, 87 = htsog-hram, 35, &c.
ch-tsh: hśi-hgri-hchim, 38 = hśi-hkri-htshim, 81; chis (gdim°),
94 = tshis (dim°), 95, 88 (htshis)
j-dz: hno-hdzam, 264 = hnoho-hjam 273.
jon(mon°), 78, 118 (hjon), &c. = hdzon(mon°), 64, &c.
rje-hbro-re, 138 = rdze-hbro-re, 138.
hjo(hkehu-prom°) = hdzoho(hkohu-prom°), 361-2.

6. Alternation of j, dz, and z:

gdzu-hbyi, 305, &c. = gzu-hbyi, 307. hju(hran-hche°), 115 = hzu(ran-hche°), 117.

7. In a number of cases an r-Prefix seems to be capriciously present or absent (excluding cases where the r may be functional):

hgam(hthań°), 131, 221 = hrgam(hthań°), 133. hgyeb-hkru-hbro, 221 = hrgyeb-hkru-hbro, 321, 323. hbo-kyer, 144 = rbo(kyer°), 136. hbo-bon 238, &c. | = hbom-rbo 111, &c. hpo-rbom 317 | = hbom-rbo 111, &c. hgan-hlad, 225, &c. = hrśań-hlad, 226, &c. hdzoń-hyo-hśid, 356 = hrdzoń-hyo-hśi, 194.

The clear cases are, however, relatively few and sporadic. The r-prefix may be in general either a fixed one or functional.

 Alternations involving w: dwań(hkehu-hkah°), 364 = rwań(kehu-hkah°), 178. hbu-rbye-hce-rgyań, 50 = hbu-rwye-hce-rgyań, 15. hwah-hrśań-hlamhi, 224, 228 = hgwah°, 229.

9. Miscellaneous alternations:

hstsah-hyer, 250 = hscah-hyer(g-yer), 166, 296.

hnag(hldag°), 112, &c. = nag(hldag°), 129, &c. = gnag (hldag°), 129.

na-hgoň, 358 = gnah-goň(hgoň), 179, 367.

hrgyo-hśeg-gśegra, 330 = rbyo-gśeg-gśe[g]r[a], 330.

hrtah-swah-hpeg, 360 = hrtah-swa-hphyegs, 176.

10. Final consonants: The only at once recognizable case is that of presence and absence of h after vowels. It may be said that practically every word ending in a occurs in equal or greater frequency with -ah. The fact that this addition of h does not take place after any vowel but a (the exceptions, hdih, 43, hsoh, 75, hkhoh, 328, htseh, 364, gdeh, 395, being all questionable) suggests that the practice has some relation to the Tibetan, likewise merely orthographical, use of the h in words like mdah, &c., to preclude the reading mad, &c.: but see infra, under 12. The irregularity in the use of this expedient extends to the Tibetan itself in old writings, where it creates difficulties. In both languages the h is sometimes retained (or used) before a suffix or final consonant. resulting in Tibetan forms such as hdahs, and Nam forms such as brahr, hnahd. Apart from the question of a functional -r there seems to be a scriptural confusion of -h and -r, visually quite easy, in Il. 17, 163, 302.

A few writings, g-yaha, 266, hphahha, 275, are provisionally mysterious: but see infra.

 Non-functional vowel variation seems to be in the text very rare, except in one case, namely, the frequent variation between—

i, u, e, o

and

ihi, uhu, ehe, oho

Of this alternation full particulars have been given in the JRAS. 1939, pp. 201 sqq., where it is shown that the longer forms are monosyllabic and that they represent a feature of pronunciation which in the Koko-nor region has been observed in modern times. It might be regarded as corresponding to one or other of the 'tones' of Chinese or Indo-Chinese languages; but it certainly is not employed as a means of discriminating homonyms.

In regard to this pronunciation and writing two somewhat curious observations present themselves—

In the first place, the pronunciation indicated has a singular

resemblance to the Indian pandits' pronunciation of the final -ah, -ih, -uh, &c., in Sanskrit.

Secondly, there does not seem to be any reason why the a-vowel should have been exempt: that is not the case with the modern Koko-nor pronunciation of Tibetan, as is proved by some of Prejevalsky's instances, e.g. $saa(zyuu) = \text{Tib. } sa(-g\dot{z}i)$, 'earth', sha-a, 'meat', $= \text{Tib. } \dot{s}a$, rta-a, 'horse' = Tib. rta. The question therefore arises whether all the Nam words in -ah should not rather be transliterated with -aha; and an affirmative answer is suggested by the above-noted g-yaha and hphahha, which may be explained simply as writings of h in place of h.

This reasoning would not apply to Tibetan words with -ah because in the parallel Tibetan -ih, -uh, -eh, -oh there is no indication of a reduplicated i, u, e, o, except in the byoho and soho of

two Amdo manuscripts.

Apparent variation between -e and -ehi and -e and -ehu in:

ḥrah-we-rtah, 114, 191 = ḥraḥ-weḥi-rta, 139, 380 (ḥwehihrtah).

rwer-hmo-hchah-byin, 97 = rwehi-re-hmo-cha-byi, 98.

hke-hkah, 152, 158 = hkehu-hkah, 364.

hke-prom, 176, 360, &c. = hkehu-prom, 177, 178, 360, &c. hbe-hbah, 235 = hbehi-hbah, 110, 234.

and likewise some possible cases of -u/-o can be considered only after etymological investigation (infra, pp. 367-9).

It is evident that these numerous variations, which have been cited as patently orthographical and not significant, must add considerably to our embarrassment in confronting a language entirely unknown and moreover monosyllabic. A syllable ca, for instance, might present itself in variants such as cah, hca, hcah, cha, chah, hchah, ja, jah, hjah, tsa, tsah, htsa, htsah; and the possibilities must further be multiplied by the number of meanings which the syllable may have had in the language, no doubt rich, like all Tibeto-Burman dialects, in homophones. Much must be set down to the account of the scribes, persons used, no doubt, to writing Tibetan and in that language somewhat indifferent to certain distinctions, such as presence or absence of Prefix h and final h, tenuis and aspirate (frequently alternating in their verbs), the use of certain other Prefixes, final s after g and b, final d (the

drag) after n, r, l, and so forth. Hence we are not surprised to find that in certain contemporary Tibetan manuscripts (pp. 130 sqq.) from the same region parallel inconsistencies in comparable number can be observed.

There are, however, some qualifications which deserve mention, In the first place, the inconsistencies and laxities are, despite their number, not sufficient to preclude our speaking of a normal spelling, or orthography. This is evident from the circumstance that the reviser of the text has made frequent corrections of the spelling, paying attention to even such matters as initial and final h (supra, p. 113 n. 3): he, therefore, considered that in the particular passage such and such a form was the right one, unless indeed he was merely equating the copy with an original. Secondly, some words of enormous frequency, ge, re, dze, one or other of them occurring in nearly every line, never perhaps receive either the Prefixed h (as noted supra, pp. 120) or the suffixed h or any other modification. The words are ge, a particle; re, the verb 'to be', unemphatic: dze, a preposition, of Chinese origin; possibly some other words, e.g. na, when meaning 'in'. These two circumstances prove that the initial or final h was not inserted without a purpose, upon a mere caprice: a like conclusion follows from the cases where g- and h- alternate without difference of function. The h- was not nothing; and, since it was not functional, it must have been phonetic; that being so, its irregularity can be explained by a proximate oral source of the text (supra, p. 117 n.), when the first scribe will have sometimes heard and sometimes failed to hear the acoustic equivalent of the sign, which indeed may not have been always enunciated in actual speech. This inference is reinforced by the vocalic variation, i, u, e, o/ihi, uhu, ehe, oho, which shows a similar inconstancy and which is known to have been oral. The initial h, perhaps a guttural nasalization, had a nasal value in the oldest known Tibetan, e.g. in Be-rka-hdra = Bargandara1 and Ga-hjag = Kanjak, and only with this value (e.g. in Kanjur = Bkah-hayur, rdzum-chul = rdzu-hphrul) is it now sounded in central and north-eastern Tibet: cf. pp. 76, 119 supra.

See ZDMG, xcii, pp. 609-10.

In advance of any substantial knowledge of the language something may be affirmed concerning the text, both on internal and on external grounds.

In the first place, the punctuation, as described above and shown to be not casual, indicates sections of the text larger than a sentence. These occur as follows:

- 1, line 62 beginning with \(\simeq \| \ : \| : \text{this, occurring after a short line and a blank of a line's width, may be paralleled from Tibetan writings, where it is often only a scribe's beginning upon the recto of a new folio. It may indicate only a resumption of work after a break: the previous sentence ends quite normally with \(\| \| \| \end{array}.
- line 80, |: |: the two dots seem to be a reviser's insertion, and this circumstance somewhat emphasizes the break.
- lines 110, 116, |||: perhaps casual, = ||, but in any case not very emphatic.
- 4, lines 164, 172, 186, 365, 377, |||: as in line 116.
- 5, line 215, || ||.
- 6, line 222, |: |.
- 7, line 249, || :: ||: evidently a major division.
- 8, line 253, ||:||: end of an epilogue or prelude?
- 9, line 325, || ||.
- 10, lines 344, 352, 358, || ||.
- 11, line 385, |:|.

All these punctuation marks are familiar in Tibetan manuscripts. The punctuation with ||, less emphatic, reveals the important fact that a large part of the text is in verse. This may be exemplified by a passage occupying Il. 89-93:

gdim | phyi | hse | ge | [90] | htshog | hram | hňad ||
rgyed | ma | hldaň | ge | htsog | hram | hśah ||
rta | htsog | hram | [91] ge | htah | rwye | htah ||
rta | sko | prom | re | hrtah | hldaň | hkraň ||
htsog | rpu | śe | chaň | [92] pyi | hse | hthoň ||
hkor | htah | hkhen | yaň | sñaň | gyaň | gyaň |
hjah | htah | hkhen | yaň | [93] swa | tseg | tseg ||

Here the double line evidently divides verses of seven syllables each, and even its absence in the last line but one is perhaps due to the fact that the second gyan is an underline insertion.

A metre of seven syllables is common in Chinese writings, and the Rgyal-ron poem discussed above is in the same. The Hsi-hsia has it both in a sacred text, the translation of the Suvarnaprabhāsa sūtra (see the edition by Wang Jinqru in his Shishiah Studies, iii, e.g. pp. 110, 112, 152), and also elsewhere (see Nevsky, op. cit., p. xviii). In old Tibetan we find it used in the Buddhist Vimalaprabhā-paripṛcchā (Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, i, p. 190), as well as in crude verses concluding a letter (Two Medieval Documents from Tun-huang, by F. W. Thomas and Sten Konow, pp. 124, 128). As regards later Tibetan, we may refer to Francke, Ladakhi Songs, i, pp. 35 (xiii), 62 (xxvi) and Frühlingsund Wintermythus der Kesarsage, i, p. 1, ii, pp. 17, 28, &c., and the Tibetan Chronicle (Rayal-rabs-gsal-bahi-me-lon) in Antiquities of Indian Tibet, ii, pp. 22, 29. In the So-sor-thar-pa (Prātimokṣasūtra) edited by Satīścandra Vidyābhūṣaṇa (Calcutta, 1915) many such verses can be conveniently examined; perhaps even more accessible is Laufer's edition of the Tibetan Citra-laksana (Leipzig, 1913), where the text is in the same metre. In the present instance (as also in Tibetan) the metre evidently has a caesura after the fourth syllable: 1 the fact that in the first three verses the fourth syllable is the same (qe), and similarly in the last two, is a sufficient proof of this; but it is also shown by another outstanding feature of the text, namely the parallelism of expression seen throughout the passage and culminating in the last two lines and the reduplicated words (no doubt verbs) with which they end.

A verse of seven syllables with a caesura after the fourth would be a catalectic form of a verse of eight syllables, derived from one of four syllables, such as is common in Chinese. Hence it would not be surprizing to meet with verses of eight syllables, and also verses of eleven or twelve, as common in Tibetan: and such seem in fact to occur; examples:

8 syllables:

htah: | hśud | hdon | rgyag | dze | htor | hdo | hchun | hta | śud | mehi | dze | hrtah | hjam | ge | hmehi || 185-6.

11 syllables:

hbo | hron | hrog | re | hlah | hkyan | hras | re | hses | gsi | hdzuhi |.

rgyeb | hchi | hro | re | gdag | yan | la | por | hses | hsi | hdzuhi || 344-5.

¹ There are a few intentional exceptions, e.g. in ll. 65, 67, where the fifth syllable is the *tsa* of p. 188 infra.

hbom | rbo | phan | dze | hldan | hkran | hnar | re | hbom | rbo |

hldah ||.

hmah | hldań | hyah | dze | rgyed | hldag | hnag | ge | hldań | krań | hrwehi || 111–13.

12 syllables:

hdzam | hbroń | hroń | re | hpań | hko | htar | dze | hlde | ge | htah | hldon ||.

hkrug | kyan | hldom | re | hrne | hno | hdzar | dze | hldehe | ge | htah | hldon | 371-2.

It will be seen that metrically these verses are composed of 4+4, 4+4+3, and 4+4+4 syllables respectively. The verse of 9 syllables, likewise common in Tibetan, is seen in:

g-yog | hśań | ma | hpul | dze | hmar | hbab | ge | hrloho || hbu | rwye | hce | rgyań | dze | hldyo | htor | ge | hnus || 15–16. hsehe | hldu | hru | re | dze | hphag | hbah | ge | hyor | hcha | hgrah | nu | nar | dze | hkhab | hgro | ge | hkahi || 238–9.

In these, and in its other occurrences (e.g. 347-9), its caesura is evidently after the 5th syllable, which is perhaps noticeable, because the Tibetan verse of 9 syllables usually has its break after the 4th.

These metrical facts are of great importance, not only as shedding light upon the character of the text, but also for the understanding of the language. They determine the metrical values of syllables and make more definite the discrimination of the limits of the phrases, generally found to consist of two syllables, whose recurrence, as well as the recurrence of whole verses or halves of verses, is a prominent feature of the text; and they point the antitheses between pairs or groups of words or expressions, thus furnishing a clue to the meanings. Moreover, the gravitation of certain words to the caesura position is an invaluable guide to structure and syntax.

Naturally the recurrent words and phrases are themselves suggestive of the subject-matter. The frequency of the word rta, in that form or as rtah, hrta, hrtah, which prompted the original conjecture (JRAS. 1926, p. 505 n.) of a treatise on horses, is still a likely indication of a connexion with horses; for not only in normal Tibetan, but also in the dialects of the north-east, the word rta has that meaning and not prima facie any other. But this matter, and more especially when we consider other expressions, such as hso-hna, htsog-hram, hldan-hkhran, recurrent in various

spellings, can be discussed profitably only under the head of etymology.

There are two breaks in the text which may be immediately instructive. The first of them occurs in line 180, where we find included a sentence of actual Tibetan:

de-nas-rabs-bgyis-gsan-hldi-hlab of which the meaning seems to be:

'therefrom, or thereafter, race (races, descent, generations) was (were) made: this is said (as) secret'.

In this stage-direction, so to speak, a Tibetan editor, who for the word 'this' is betrayed into using the Nam form hldi in place of the correct hdi, indicates that the text had been communicated orally and that a part of it was in some way esoteric. The second is the very marked break noted as occurring in line 249. In accordance with usage we should be prepared to find at the end of a section a colophon; it may therefore be that the last word hkon (ni), which occurs only in that place, may be simply the Chinese word chüan, 'fasciculus', 'chapter', which in the form kvon has been found so used (JRAS. 1927, p. 293; 1929, p. 61) in colophons of Chinese manuscripts, in Tibetan script, from Chinese Turkestan. Admixture of Chinese terms was to be anticipated in manuscripts written in Tun-huang. What then was the topic finished at line 249?

Among external indications we must cite first the fact that the manuscript was written, no doubt in Sa-cu, where it was preserved, upon the verso of a Chinese Buddhist text. This took place, probably, during the period of Tibetan predominance in Sa-cu, which period may be stated roughly as circa a.d. 730–850. It must have been monastic work, since only in a religious establishment would the Chinese manuscript have been available for use, and only in such a milieu would there have been the requisite literary interest; we know, moreover, that in the monasteries there was an extensive business of copying. It is presumable therefore that the text had in some way a religious interest. That interest was certainly not Buddhist; for it would be impossible to find in any language a Buddhist text of like extent showing no discernible traces of Buddhist or Indian terminology—in fact the presence of Buddhist expressions in writings, from Sa-cu and elsewhere in

¹ The ni is a Particle (see infra, p. 177).

² Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 80.

Central Asia, representing unknown languages, has been the chief key to the understanding of those languages; in the present text an oft-repeated perusal has not brought to light a single item of Buddhism.

From the same library we have in Tibetan script a few non-Tibetan writings, namely:

- (a) a small number of Chinese Buddhist texts and one or two documents in the same language;
- (b) some parts of a medical work in a language which has been recognized as that of a district of the western part of Tibet, usually associated with the Himālayan district Gu-ge, but perhaps embracing the whole Kailāsa region.

In normal Tibetan there are:

- masses of manuscripts containing Buddhist texts or works connected with Buddhism;
- (2) a Tibetan Chronicle;
- (3) a few pieces relating to medicine or divination;
- (4) a few pieces relating to business of government or monasteries;
- (5) miscellaneous notices, letters, legal agreements, model letter-forms, and signatures.

But there are also some pieces marked in various degrees by linguistic features and style distinguishing them from everything hitherto familiar as Tibetan; they are connected with eastern and north-eastern Tibet, and their language and sentiment show no trace of Buddhism. They are popular literature, and two of them are folk-lore.

In these two, one of which is only a short fragment, there are references to the language of a Nam or Nam-pa kingdom, and in one of them the Nam people are called Nam-Tig. Two of the stories are introduced by, or contain, statements concerning their leading persons, to the effect that their names in the Nam-kingdom language are such and such, in Tibetan such and such. Since the narratives are in Tibetan, it is evident that the stories are derived from Nam originals, oral or otherwise; thus the stories are in substance literature of the Nam-Tig people, and the names given in Nam-pa form are evidence in regard to a Nam language. This evidence can most conveniently be considered here.

In the story of a man, or quasi-man—the story being a fable—

who with some of his family was devoured by a demon, the man's name is given as:

In the language of the Nam-pa kingdom:

Lton-tehi Mye-kru

(with variants te for tehi, me for mye and ku, kro and bkru (?) for kru);

In the language of Tibet:

Glon-myig-lon, Bya-Glon-gi-lgo(mgo)-dan-rje,

and the meaning (most names from Tibet and Central Asia had meanings) is 'Blind Eye-blind', 'Blind Birds' Head and Chief'. The word for 'blind' is found in Tibetan in the forms mdons, ldon, lon, all going back, no doubt, to ldon; and glon, for gldon, has merely an additional, or a different, Prefix. The form of the expression 'Blind, Eye-blind' is characteristic of north-eastern Tibet, whence we have numerous parallels, such as yul-myi-yul. 'country, man-country', yul-Rgya-yul, 'country, China-country'; and another will meet us below. Accordingly it appears that we have three Nam words, two of them, namely lton and kru (or kro). meaning 'blind', and the third meaning 'eye': the suffix te in lton-te has a variant form tehi. Lton is evidently related to the Tibetan Idon; mye or me = Tibetan myig, mig, is the most common form of the word for 'eye' in the Tibeto-Burman languages of the Tibeto-Chinese frontier and of China and Indo-China (Hsi-hsia mei : cf. Laufer, T'oung-pao, vol. xviii (1916), p. 50). Kru or kro is perhaps only a dialectical form corresponding to the Tibetan glon, since loss of final nasals is one of the linguistic features of the region.

In the same story a daughter of Lton-te Mye-kru has her name, originally Tsen-gi-Rbag-zin, changed into:

In the language of the Nam-pa kingdom: Bya-rma-byahi Rma-li, Byehu-rma-byehu-gi Thin-tshun (of which two forms only the second recurs);

In the language of Tibet: Khab-yo-byahi-Ḥdab-bkra.

The change of name takes place on the occasion of the girl's escape from a fiend, which she effects by clinging to a bird. The bird is certainly a peacock, in which form the girl appears later in the story; in the version contained in the shorter manuscript she escapes by actually changing into a peacock and also reappears in that form. The expression Bya-rma-byahi means 'bird, peacock-bird'; it is parallel to the yul-myi-yul, &c., noted above, and the

suffixal hi corresponds to the hi of tehi. The alternative form byehu-rma-byehu-qi is the same expression, modified only by substitution of the so-called 'Diminutive' form in -ehu, for -a, and the Genitive-Adjective suffix gi for the equivalent hi. It can be shown that such diminutives and the actual form buchu were favoured in north-eastern Tibet. Thin is probably equivalent to Tibetan mthin, which in the form thin is found in a text from northeastern Tibet, and which appears in several bird-names, mthin-ga, 'a bird of deep blue colour', mthin-ril, 'a wild duck', mthin-hril, 'a certain bird': note also mthin-khra, 'a kind of silk-scarf with white spots on a blue ground', containing the word khra, which also occurs in the name. It is possible that tshun means 'feather', since one of the Hsi-fan languages has tson in that sense :1 but not much weight can be attached to this, since in a modern dialect we should expect a more degenerate form : perhaps Tibetan tshon, 'colour', may call for consideration. It does not seem possible to say anything concerning rma-li. In the Tibetan name hdab-bkra means 'mottled wing', and khab-yo-bya in the context where it occurs ought to mean 'household (khab)-managing (yo)-bird'. Thus the interpretation of this name fails to yield any sufficiently precise information in regard to the meanings of individual words.

In the same story figures the 'mountain-ridge donkey' (ri-khaḥi-bon-bu), to whose neck the Nam-Tig people attach a 'yak-heart' bell and whom they set to guard sheep. His name is:

In the Nam-pa language: cho-pyi-cog-zu; In the language of Tibet: span-hgi-bon-bu-stag-cun.

The Tibetan name means 'Ass of the meadow, "Little Tiger". Here we have very good reason for understanding cog-zu as meaning 'Ass of the meadow'; for in the divergent version of the story contained in the smaller manuscript the same, or another, ass is named \(\frac{z}{z}\) u-tsog-\(\frac{z}{z}\)u, a name evidently of the form previously described and meaning 'Ass, meadow-ass'. It follows that \(cho-pyi\) means 'Little Tiger'. \(Cho\) might be related to the \(khoh\) of the Th\(\frac{z}{z}\) the Tiger'. \(Cho\) might be related to the \(khoh\) of the Th\(\frac{z}{z}\) the Uicomte \(khoh\) of certain Miao-tseu dialects, recorded by the Vicomte d'Ollone (op. cit., p. 64) as meaning 'tiger' and 'panther'; and there are various forms in Tibeto-Burman dialects' (see Hunter, \(The\) Non-Aryan Languages

But some of these seem to point to an original initial kl-.

¹ d'Ollone, p. 70 (No. 38): in Hsi-hsia rtsi, rtsih, rtsih are given (Nevsky, No. 132) as meaning 'colour'.

of India and High Asia, p. 160). In one of the two Tibetan manuscripts occurs a word cha, denoting some kind of forest animal, and this might mean the tiger, since the verb hchah has the sense of 'maul', 'mangle', and cho might be related to it as smo to rma, zo to za, lto to lta. For the moment there is little advantage in such conjectures, but it will appear infra (p. 252) that both the word for 'ass' and the expression 'little tiger' are represented in the text.

With the story of 'Blind, Eye-blind' the two manuscripts connect an account of the family of a person named:

In the language of the Nam-pa kingdom: Yab-nal-ldehi (elsewhere lde)-thol-phrom;

In the language of the Tibetan kingdom: Yab-sten-rgan-gyiñer-ba,

and the one text states that he was in the country Skyi-mthin, while the other discusses the manner of his burial. The Tibetan means 'Having care (ner-ba) of his exalted (sten) old (rgan) father': from which we can see that the person was not an ordinary human being, but was connected with one of the upper (sten) worlds of the Bon cosmology: in fact, he himself goes at death 'to heaven' (dqun-du). The Nam word nal, if connected with Tibetan nal, 'fatigue', could very well mean 'old'; and the suffix lde or ldehi is similar to the te or tehi already familiar to us. From the circumstances as detailed in the story we can see that the matter taken in charge was the burial of a father; hence we cannot be mistaken in assigning to thol the meaning 'bury', which meaning is not recorded in Tibetan dictionaries, but recurs several times in old Tibetan documents from Central Asia,1 possibly borrowed from people of the Koko-nor region, since the Tibetans themselves did not normally bury.2 Accordingly phrom will have the sense of ner, 'take charge of', 'attend to' (infra, p. 137).

Of the other names mentioned in these stories we are not furnished with translations. But it may not be superfluous to point out that in type they correspond generally to those discussed above. Omitting the seven Gyim (Gyim-po, 'Gyim-man'), brothers we have:

(a) Wife of Lton-te Mye-kru : Bżagste Nar-hbyam.

2 See, however, infra, p. 148.

¹ Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, pp. 389: 83, 390: 84 (btol), 389: 82 (gthol).

On Gyim as a tribe-name see supra, pp. 33, n. 5, 57.

(b) Daughters of the same:

Version A: Tsen-hgi-Rba[g]-ga, Tsen-hgi-Rbag-żin, Tsenhgi-Rba[g]-ga.

Version B: Rbeg-ga-rbeg-ŝi (= Tsen-hgi-Rbag-žin) only mentioned in the fragment.

(c) Wives of Yab-nal-de-thol-phrom: Ldeḥu-zaḥi-hbrin-te Sman-skyol Skeg-zaḥi-hbrin-te Yar-mo-btsun in which the te is once omitted.

Here we usually find the proper personal name preceded by a surname, which in two cases is a clan-name 'Ldehu-woman-middle-[sister]', 'Skeg-woman-middle-[sister]', in two, Bžagste and Tseň-hgi, is obscure, and in Rbeg-ga-rbeg has the form already exemplified in Glon-myig-lon (Ltoň-te-Mye-kru), Žu-tsog-žu, yul-myi-yul, &c. To this last group belongs also, in one of the two versions, the name of

(d) The fiend: Go-ya-go-phu (in the other version he is Dgulcogs), 'the Go, the Ya-Go, the elder' (if phu here, as usual, means 'elder': ya may be 'sheep (ewe)', cf. pp. 94, 343).

The persons in these stories are, as has been mentioned, not ordinary human beings. This applies in a high degree to the girl Rbeg-ga-rbeg-śi, or Tsen-hgi-Rbafgl-zin, who is transmuted into a peacock and flies away from G-ver-mo-than to the Skvi-mthin country, where she becomes the wife of Gyim-po Nag-cig ['Number one'], the junior, but wise, son of Yab-nal-de Thol-phrom. Her character as a peacock suggests a bird-nature in the original status of herself and her family, and discloses a possibility that her father, 'Blind Eye-blind', 'Blind Birds' Head and Chief', may have commenced his existence in fable as an owl. This possibility is confirmed by the name of the fiend in the form Go-ya-go, since go may well be = Tibetan go-bo (Mo-so hio?), 'vulture'; but she may have been a sheep, since the fiend's first object in approaching the flock of sheep will have been, of course, the lambs. In any case the alternative version, in which the fiend is 'the black fiend Dgu-loogs from the fiend country Dgu-sul in Khar-tsan', two places belonging to the Sa-cu region,2 shows that the original fable had assumed a less definite significance.

Evidently with dialectical difference.

² Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, pp. 366-8 ("śul), 28, 32, 34-5, &c.

An aetiological character in the story emerges when we consider that it is to the Skyi country that Tseń-hgi-Rba[g]-żin escapes, and in that country she becomes the peacock bride of Yab-nal-lde-Thol-phrom's son, Gyim-po Nag-cig. The story begins (in the larger manuscript):

Yul-myi-yul-Skyi-mthin-na | ∞ | Skyi-[yul-sten-yul-Thanbrga-lrgval Bod-kyi-skad-du-na

'In a country, man-country, Skyi-mthin: Skyi [country, high-country, Than-hundred]. In the language of Tibet. . . . '

The scribe, obsessed by the idea of the Skyi country, was going on to say 'In the language of Skyi'; but he recollected immediately, crossed out the words 'country, high-country, Than-hundred' and proceeded 'In the language of Tibet', accidentally leaving in the (second) 'Skyi'. Connexion of the Skyi country with the peacock is evident when we remember that Skyi is the country of the upper Hoang-ho, the Rma-chu, 'Peacock-river', and that Rma, 'Peacock', is a surname of persons from that region,2 and that the river in its great upper course winds round the towering Amne Ma-chin range of mountains, i.e. the Ane Rma-chen, 'Aunt (or Grandmother, Grandfather, Ancestress, Ancestor) Great-Peacock' range. In another story belonging to the larger manuscript one of the characters journeys to the 'country, mancountry, Skvi-mthin, a far country', where he meets with 'man, peacock-son (myi-rma-bu), Ldam-śad'; and in a different manuscript we have a long account of a certain Myi-rma-bu-Mchinrgyal, 'Man, peacock-son, Mchin-king'. It is therefore certain that the peacock was the legendary ancestor, or rather ancestress, of the Skyi people and its chiefs; and the story of Father Nal-Ide-Thol-phrom and his Gyim-po sons is the racial legend of the Skyi folk. Should we resist the temptation to identify this Gyim with Jên (Wylie, pp. 433-4; De Groot, ii, pp. 195-6, Dsim), the greatgrandson of the legendary first king of the Ch'iang? See supra, pp. 40, 57.

We should not fail to observe that in the story three different areas are envisaged. The first is the narrator's own point of view,

² As explained in JRAS. 1927, p. 40, and Tibetan Literary Texts and

Documents, i, p. 279, n. 6. Cf. supra, p. 1, n. 2.

^{&#}x27;Plain-hundred', if brga is = brgya, 'hundred': many parallels show that it must be a number; but it might be ga, 'ten', which is likely to have been the regional word = Hórpa sga, Muli ka-te, Pa-U-Rong ka-den, Hsi-hsia dgah, dghah, and which probably occurs as ga in the longer manuscript; on the word Than in the name see supra, p. 30, n. 3.

where, no doubt, since he does not suggest any other location, is the home of Lton-te Mye-kru and his family. The second is the place of the girl's first hiding (and perhaps, therefore, not remote from her own original country), namely, the G-yer-mo-than, which we have already (pp. 33-4) found reason to identify with the 'Great and Little Turquoise (Yü) Valleys', west of the Koko-nor. The third is the country of Yab-nal-de-Thol-phrom, the Skyi country, which the girl reaches in her flight after traversing nine passes and crossing nine fords. Thus we have three regions: the narrator's, i.e. the Nam, region; a proximate region, the G-yer-mo-than; and a remoter region, Skyi, which had its own language or dialect. The legend of the Skyi country, at any rate as retailed in the Nam country, recognized an ancestry from the first of these.

Have we now sufficient grounds for identifying with the Nam language that speech which is represented by our manuscript? The most obvious formal correspondence is in connexion with the suffix which appears in the forms te and tehi (Lton-te and tehi, hbrin-te), ste (Bžagste), lde and ldehi (Nal-lde and ldehi), and which obviously is identical with the Tibetan Gerund suffix te, ste, de. In Tibetan, however, the suffix is not found employed as it is in these names, i.e. as a mere appendage to an attribute; and it certainly could not be followed, as here, by a Genitive or Adjective suffix hi-that this is the value of the hi is proved by the alternative use of hgi in Tsen-hgi Rba-ga, &c. Alternation of -e and -ehi without apparent difference of sense has been exemplified above (p. 124) in forms of the manuscript language, and it seems possible that we should find in the hi the Adjectival suffix i which Dr. Laufer attributed (T'oung-pao, xxii (1916), p. 106) to the Hsi-hsia language; and such a suffix might have also other uses. But in any case the language of the manuscript has many examples of a suffix te or hte attached to words which are unmistakable verbs (hdre, htre, hphom) and adjectives (htor, hram, hnam), on which matter see infra (pp. 188-90); the form ste also occurs.

It must be confessed that a te, de, ste, lde as a Gerund, though not in the above use, may, since it existed in two independent dialects, Tibetan and Nam, have been general in old Tibeto-Burman, and so may have extended to the language of the manuscript, even if not identifiable with Nam. This difficulty does not apply to the auxiliary verb phrom in thol-phrom, which in Tibetan might have been thol-byed or thol-mdzad, the two verbs byed, 'do', and mdzad, 'make', 'do', being from old times so

employed with verbs, either to form Causatives or as mere stylistic equivalents of the simple verbs. In the Tibetan documents another verb hkhums (Preterite khums, and bkum; Future bgums) is frequently used in the expression gner-hkhums, 'to carry out a task', gner being a verb with the meaning 'employ' or 'have in charge'. This verb hkhums, which is not found in the Tibetan dictionaries, is perhaps identical in root with hqum, 'die', bkum, 'kill', and may have meant 'execute' in both senses; but a more likely connexion is with hkhums, skum, 'contract' (limbs, &c.), whence the dictionary of S. C. Das gives 'to practise', 'to impress on the mind' ('concentrate'), and thos-pa-hkhum, 'comprehend what has been heard'. Phrom will then be a verb of the same character, possibly connected with phrom, khrom, 'a mart', often used by the Tibetans in Central Asia. The word, as prom, hprom, hproms, bprom, phrom, hphrom, is of frequent occurrence in the language of the manuscript, and is nowhere else recorded;1 and this fact may perhaps be considered decisive of the whole matter.2

Also the text has an auxiliary verb hkom, gkom, e.g. in yob-hkom, l. 166, 'having accomplished a shaking', which is clearly identical with the Tibetan hkhums; concerning prom and hkom see infra, pp. 199-200.

Is it an accident that has combined the three syllables Nam-Idon-prom in the name of a place where in the year A.D. 702 the Tibetan government held their winter assembly of Mdo-smad (Tibetan MS. Chronicle)? The name might mean 'Ldon-prom in Nam', or 'Nam-Idon mart' (with prom = phrom, 'mart'). But in any case the Nam country is probably indicated, and prom, even if = phrom, points to the north, since it is only in Central Asia that this form of khrom, 'mart', is known.

It seems highly probable that the collocation Nam-ldon is not, in fact, casual, and that the blindness (ldon) of Mye-kru owes its origin to a neverabsent feature of Central-Asian folk-lore, namely, popular etymology. For the Ldon are famous in Tibetan literature as one of the six early tribes descended from the monkey patriarch of the Tibetan race, and also as having supplied generations of ministers to the Tibetan state (see S. C. Das's Dictionary, s.v.). The Ldon Sum-pa, i.e. the Ldon of the Sum-pa division, have already (p. 18, n. 2) come to our knowledge; and in connexion with them the Tibetan history there cited makes mention also of the Ldon Mi-nag, as another of the four tribes of 'inner dwarfs'. It looks as if the peoples of the Women's Kingdom and of the Mi-nag country were regarded as subdivisions of a Ldon race. If that is so, we must include also the Nam people; for the same manuscript which speaks of the Ldon Sum-pa refers in the same connexion to the Nam-pa Ldon, the 'Ldon of the Nam-pa division', and these seem to be also the Nam-chen Ldon of the history (p. 65). Accordingly it appears that to the early Tibetans the Ch'iang tribes in general were Ldon. This being so, it is probable that the 'blindness' of the Nam patriarch Mye-kru, and perhaps his owl character and his whole story, embody merely a popular attempt to account for the racial or ethnic name Ldon, Gton.

But it seems also that the actual name Mye-kru, in the form Mehi-klu, and the word klu, with the meaning 'blind', occur in the manuscript.

Mehi-klu-hcha, certainly denoting some kind of living creatures,

occurs in:

hldyan-hpu-hbri-re-mehi-klu-hcha-ge-stor-htah-htoni | 1.150, which must mean (approximately):

'the Mehi-klu-hcha, male and female (?), were scattered (or fled)';

and the same verse, with heah for heha and yan-stor-hdor-hyon for ge-stor-htah-htoni recurs in l. 161. In l. 218 we have:

hldyan-hpu-hbri-re-hmehi-klu-hcah-dze-htor-hkho-gehkhohi,

and the phrase hldyan... hcah is found again in l. 343. It is possible that hcah or hcha is a pluralizing suffix which occurs in other connexions; but more probably it means 'harmful creatures', see supra, pp. 132-3, cha, hcah, hchah, &c., and infra, p. 253. Mehi, according to what has been set out above, is a good equivalent for mye, me, 'eye'; along with klu it is found in ll. 24-5:

hgru-hsram-htam-ge-hses-beg-stah klu-hrto-htsa-ge-hses-hbeg-mehi klu-rto-htsah-ge-hrah-hyos-hlam.

Hises-hieg occurs elsewhere and seems to be a divinity, and hrah-hyos likewise recurs, meaning probably 'place moved', while hlam is certainly = Tibetan lam, 'road', 'path'. The parallelism of stah, mehi, and hlam, along with the other antitheses, proves that the meaning of the second and third lines is:

'They being blind [rocks], Ḥśes-beg was their eye:

They being blind [rocks], the place (itself) moving was their path.'

These coincidences inevitably suggest the possibility of a connexion between our Nam text (since we can now confidently refer to it as such) and the two Tibetan manuscripts, a connexion extending to the subject-matter; and this idea is encouraged by a rather striking parallelism.

The Tibetan interpolation at l. 180 of the Nam manuscript means, as we have seen,

'therefrom, or thereafter, race (races, descent, generations) was (were) made: this is said (as) secret'.

In the longer Tibetan manuscript the first part ends:

'Now in kinds, nine (= all) kinds (rigs, 'races'), it is to be: in divisions, nine divisions, is to be division';

and then, after some verses particularizing the changes, we have a colophon:

'Chapter telling of the beginning (cho). The rest is to be spoken. Here a small extract is written.'

Thus both texts profess an oral source, and at a certain point both announce an oral continuation and state as its subject a matter of race or divided races (rabs, rigs).

The next, and longest, section in the Tibetan manuscript narrates the tragic story of the separation (dbye) of the horse and kiang (the wild ass) and the conflict with the yak, whose hostility is still a notorious theme. The horse is generally, of course, rta, the usual word not only in normal Tibetan but also in the frontier dialects of the east and north-east. The yak is g-yag (byag) or hbron, the yak-bull, whose malice is proverbial; in the text we are concerned with 'Father Hbron-g-yag Skar-ba' (his individual name). The Nam text likewise is evidently concerned with the horse (rta, rtah, hrta, hrtah) and the yak (hbron), whose designations are of constant recurrence; and it would be easy to show that the main topic is the strife between the two and the quelling of the yak. Since this proof depends upon the interpretation of Nam words, it would be premature to dwell here upon the matter; it may suffice to cite two lines (185-6) of the text which are fairly clear:

htah | hśud | hdon | rgyag | dze | htor | hdo | hchun | hta | śud | mehi | dze | hrtah | hjam | ge | hmehi ||

The meaning must be (roughly):

'In comparison with (dze) that fierce-purposed [yak] the horse is in bigness small:

'In comparison with that fierce-eyed [yak] the horse has a mild eye'

(the little fierce eye of the yak-bull being a familiar matter).1

Another expression, of like frequency, in the Nam text is rgyed or rgyed-ma. If we disregard the initial r, or regard it as a Causative Prefix, we are at once conducted to the Tibetan verb hgye, 'be

On the blackness, fierceness, and 'fiery eyes' of the yak see Huc and Gabet, ii, p. 120, and cf. Rockhill, *Diary*, pp. 193, 199, Tafel, i, p. 337, and Prejevalsky, ii, pp. 187–8, 194.

divided', 'to issue, proceed, spread, or branch from',1 and to its causative form haved, 'scatter, disperse, set going', with Preterite bayes. Future bkye. In connexion with Tibetan forms beginning with qu, qr, ql there is always reason to anticipate alternatives with by, br or dr, bl, of which alternation we have here, in fact, an instance; for the more common form in Tibetan is hove. 'open. separate, resolve into', with Causative hbued (Preterite phue, phyed, phyes, Future dbye), 'open, disunite, set at variance, divide', rigs-kvi-sgo-nas-dbue-na, 'if classified according to the different species (rigs)'. This form hbued is, in fact, the one used (dbye, Future or Prospective) in the Tibetan manuscript to denote the 'separation' of species. In the Nam we should, on the analogy of its glo, 'mind' (ordinary Tibetan blo, but in Central-Asian documents glo), expect the g form. Incontestably therefore we recognize in the Nam word rayed the meaning 'divide', 'separate'; and in regard to rayed-ma we scarcely need to cite the Tibetan havedma, which the authors of S. C. Das's Tibetan Dictionary have somewhere found denoting 'a goddess, one that brings on division, dissension, or disunion'.

We are now in a position to resume consideration of the 'colophon' occurring, as suggested *supra* (p. 129) in ll. 248-9 of the text. The last sentence there reads:

hldi-rgyed-hrar-rgyed-htre-hte-ge-gse-hśo-hkoni (= hkon-ni).

Here hldi = Tibetan hdi, 'this'; hrar is Locative of hrah = Tibetan ra, 'place', 'enclosure'; htre, which elsewhere in connexion with rgyed is hdre, is a form of the Tibetan verb hdren, 'draw', 'bring on', 'invite' (blo-hdren, 'draw on the mind', 'persuade', 'induce'). The form hdre with this meaning occurs in our texts from eastern and north-eastern Tibet; and the ordinary Tibetan hdre, 'demon, or evil spirit', is perhaps the same word in the sense of a 'drawer'; hte is the Participial-Adjectival suffix with which we are already familiar. Gse (also hse), since it occurs with the suffix htah, is probably a verb; and since we have

gse-htah-hdam, 248, hse-htah-hdam, 326, 'gse-ta was bound or condemned'.

¹ S. C. Das's Dictionary: de-dag-las-gyes-so, 'they have proceeded from those (their ancestors)'. So also in the Rgyal-rabs (ed. Francke, Antiquities of Indian Tibet, ii, p. 21, 1. 2) bži-po-de-las-mi-rigs-phal-cher-gyes-so', 'from those four the races of men in general branched out'.

and gse-lad (and hlad), 240, 242, 244,

'requital of gse',

it means 'injuring', 'harming', 'injury', 'harm', and corresponds to Tibetan gtse/htshe, 'cause mischief or danger to, damage, injure, persecute'. For hkon the meaning 'chapter' has been conjectured. The meaning of the passage therefore is:

'In this Place of Division injury [by] those inducing Division, so-Chapter.'

What is \$\langle \delta \circ ?\$ The two other occurrences of the word throw no light upon its meaning. It is clearly not = Tibetan \$\delta \circ, \delta \c

cho-smos-paḥi-leḥu

'chapter telling of the beginning',

we might be tempted to equate so with cho in the sense of 'beginning'; but, since the Nam text contains the word chos in that sense, that way seems provisionally to be closed, and we must leave the problem unresolved. Nothing supports the idea that so

might be a number.

In the Tibetan manuscript the (fragmentary) beginning is concerned with the period preceding the Age of Separation, division, dissension. It was a Golden Age, with blessedness concentrated on the top, and evil or curse shut outside. The change came with the action of the stars and planets, which commenced to 'eat uphill' (or with difficulty, against the grain) and drink anxiously'. If the Nam text was on similar lines, we might perhaps in its opening part, despite its fragmentary condition, find some traces of a world cataclysm. From Il. 24–5 we have already taken note of the verse which says:

'They being blind, the place (itself) moving was their path.'
The phrase hrah-hyos, 'place moved', recurs as hrah-g-yos and

¹ G-yen-du, possibly a technical expression, because we are told that in October the yaks, having previously 'fed their way up the mountain', 'of their own accord commence feeding downwards' (Travels of a Pioneer of Commerce, by T. T. Cooper, p. 394).

g-rah-hyos in 1. 26, while in 1. 27 we find g-rah-g-yo, and in 1. 28 g-yo-hpud-hto. In g-yo we have evidently to do with the Tibetan verb g-yo, Preterite g-yos, 'move', 'waver', of which yo-ba, 'crooked', 'perverted', 'deceitful', may be a prefixless form; and other variations may be traced. But that in north-eastern Tibet the phrase was used with reference to earthquake or cataclysm' is certain from another Tibetan manuscript, which tells of a girl queen of the Myan country, who was keeping down the local fiend, so that:

'When in the high-country was quaking (g-yos), in the Myan high-country of Black Woods there was no quaking (g-yos).' That a cataclysm is the subject of the opening part of the Nam text may shed light upon the verse (ll. 9, 19)

sta-re-hmo-ge-sta-hri-hldyan

if that means something like

'Where were the clouds (or heavens, hmog or hmo), there the mountains rose (or flew or?)',

which may suggest an original Tibeto-Burman source for the early Sanskrit legend that the mountains (Himālaya) at first had wings. It is a singular coincidence that the earth-movement was due to the swelling-up, as we shall see, of the above-mentioned (p. 138) divinity, Hses-hbeg, in name resembling the serpent Seşa of Indian mythology, who 'by moving his coils lays the mountains in ruins'. The end of the cataclysm is stated in the verse

hsah-yob-hkom-re-hran-hrah-htsuhu ||, 166, which patently means

'The earth, having done quaking, returned to its own place.'
The character of the Nam text now begins, it may be hoped, to be discernible behind its machine-gun rapid-fire of strange monosyllables. It is the literature, folk-lore, and sacred legend of the Nam-Tig people. Like the narration in Tibetan language, to which it had a general, but apparently no close, correspondence, it began with a description of a primitive age of blessedness and harmony in the fields of heaven; and then, after describing the cosmic disaster which terminated that period, expounded the

On frequency of earthquakes in borderlands of east Tibet see Tafel, ii,
 pp. 195, 197; Johnston, p. 132; Gill, p. 218; Fergusson, p. 206.
 See the Sanskrit Harşa-carita, trans. Cowell and Thomas, p. 132.

unfortunate history of the divisions and strifes of species. If it was similar to the Tibetan texts which we have, it may have continued into human origins and have given the eponymous or aetiological legends of its own people and of others within their purview; in that case the legend of the Nam-Tig country would have been that of Mye-klu, while that of the Skyi country was, as we have seen, that of Yab-nal-lde-Thol-prom. Two other manuscripts from the same region use the doctrine of the Blessed Age and the successive periods of degeneration as a preface to disquisitions of a historical, and even a politico-religious, character. These may be affected by some indirect influence from the side of Buddhism. The Nam text, too, may contain some references to actualities. But, if it resembled the Tibetan account, which has one certain reference to Bon divinities, its notions will have been of the vaguer, more poetical and fanciful, kind, which may still be traced in certain Bon-po writings.

It ought not to be thought strange that from among tribes which the Chinese, even in T'ang times, could describe as the lowest savages, we should have literature of this nature. Narratives of a primitive Period of Bliss, or commencing with the gods or heaven and progressing into actual history or legend, are, in fact, the most widespread of all forms of early literature. After the most familiar examples, the Book of Genesis and the works of Hesiod, we may refer to the Sanskrit Purānas, which reflect some very ancient models. In the Tibeto-Burman sphere and among neighbouring peoples such narratives seem to have been a common type. For the Mo-so we may refer to the facsimile text printed, with translation, in Prince Henri d'Orléans' From Tonkin to India (pp. 448 sqq.) and to M. Jacques Bacot's work (Les Mo-so), pp. 18-20; for Lo-lo stories to M. Paul Vial (Les Lolos), pp. 6-12, H. Cordier in T'oung-pas, 1907, pp. 666-7, and M. A. Liétard's Au Yun-nan, Les Lo-lo-p'o, pp. 140-2. Concerning the 'independent Miao-tze' the Vicomte d'Ollone writes (trans., In Forbidden China, pp. 156-7):

'One of the most curious customs of these people is that of profiting by all solemn occasions . . . to relate the traditions referring to the earliest ages of the world, the Creation, the Deluge and so forth. It is an interminable story, to which the crowd listens without fatigue; they will interrupt it in order to eat or sleep, and once more it is resumed, often to last for several days. . . . Their recitals vary from village to village. The most singular point about these traditions is the almost perfect identity, in spite of certain items of purely local colour, of their account of the Deluge with that of the Bible.'

As regards Burma, we have there 'the Lahu Narrative of Creation' (Journal of the Burma Research Society, i, p. 65) and the statement of the Rev. D. Gilmore (ibid. ii, p. 32) concerning the Karens:

'the prevalence among them, when they first came in contact with Christian missionaries, of a number of traditional legends more or less resembling the narratives found in the early part of the book of Genesis."

In Tibet the Royal Chronicle (Me-lon), which remarks that

"Well known is the lineage of the gods according to Bon-po ideas".1 has preserved in its early pages some little of this, though with Buddhist admixture.

Whether the Nam narrative was of the same interminable character2 as those of the Miao-tze and the Finnish Kalevala is not apparent. It has two distinctive features, or rather three.

The first of these features is the prominence of the idea of division, or dissension, and the deploring of the resulting evils; also the praise of combination or friendship. This idea seems to have been prominent in the minds of the eastern and north-eastern Tibetans;3 for in another of the Tibetan texts one of the evils of the bad age is that

'father and son came to be in dissension (p(h)un-phye): elder brother and younger brother came to be divided (p(h)ye),

and this fact is not indifferent to us here; for the word phun-phye, which is not given in the Tibetan dictionaries, obviously means 'heap, mass, aggregate (phuh) divided (phye)', the second member being the verb which we have found used of the division of species and harmony; and this assures us that the Nam expression

pun-te-gsar-nar (204)

really does mean

'from being united (phun) new (Tib. qsar) strength (nar)', and that in

hkrug-hrdzo-hgyud-dze (18)

'upon the quarrelsome hrdzo (sc. yak) race'

Prof. A. H. Francke's translation (Antiquities of Indian Tibet, ii), p. 76. ² Cf. the remarks of Huc and Gabet (ii, p. 82) on 'interminable series of tales and legends' among the 'Si-fan nomads'.

Likewise among the T'u-yū-hun it was illustrated by the story of

King A-ch'ai's sons and the arrows (Bichurin, i. p. 79).

and in

hkrug-kyań-hldom-re-hrne-hno-hdzar (371-2)

'strife being bound down, foe and friend were united'
hkrug really is = Tibetan hkhrug, 'commotion, quarrel, fight,
row'. The material basis of this sentiment is likewise apposite
for us, and we have already (p. 39) quoted a Chinese description
of the constant and violent contentions within the Ch'iang tribes.
The long history of the struggles related in the Annals shows with
what success the dividing Chinese diplomacy played upon this
weakness; and we see here that the tribes, however incapable of
counteracting, were conscious of it.

The second feature, which also will be a valuable aid in interpretation, is the large admixture of moral or practical reflection apparent in the text. Proverbial wisdom is, no doubt, current among all human groups; and from eastern Tibet we have a text containing 'Sum-pa Mother-sayings'. The Sum-pa sayings are not those of a savage, or even barbarous, folk; and from the Koko-nor peoples, after so many centuries of contact with, and, in a varying measure, absorption into, Chinese civilization, a common-sense tone is not surprising. In the Nam text II. 120-3 contain six antithetical verses concerning htsog-hram, which certainly means 'friendly association', and ll. 124-7 six similar verses concerning hldan-hkran, which is 'uprightness'. It is not convenient to attempt at this point a translation of these, or analogous, passages -in the Tibetan manuscripts there are similarly reflective sentiments and even, in the more systematic accounts of the world periods, rather sober historico-ethical reflections. As specimens of the earlier, more naïve, wisdom we may cite the two verses in 11. 60-1:

hkhu-tsa-śid-dze-hpha-hnur-hnur gphah-tsa-glom-dze-hkhu-hnur-hnur

'When the uncle's family (i.e. the mother's side) is high, the father groans:

When the father's family is extravagant (or conceited), the uncle (the mother's people) groans',

and the three verses in ll. 158-60:

chos-ta-nan-re-hde-ta-rgyen-hlab-ta-hwen || hnah-hchos-hre-ge-hldan-myi-seg | spye-chos-hre-ge-gtsan-myi-hrgan | si-hchos-re-ge-hpu-myi-hldin || 1 Cf. Johnston, p. 287. 'Beginnings being bad, prospering is uphill, speech vain.

Born (begun) in spring, the stick does not break (or burn);

Born in summer, the grain does not mature;

Born in winter, the bird does not fly.'

The third feature is the interest in animals, natural in folkliterature. The horse and the vak are the most prominent, the former being, of course, the mainstay of the lives of the galloping, fighting, marauding tribes, which still, as travellers' narratives attest, give their thievish attention primarily to horses. In a wild state the horse is said to exist still in the Kum desert, south-east of Lob-nor. His recourse to man occasioned his separation from his brother, the wild ass (rkyan, kiang), who is seen only afar, on the high thans. The wild vak, hunted with lasso and spear,2 is noted for his malignancy. His tame fellow, with the dzo (mdzo), the cross with the cow, and also other crossings, is the characteristic animal of Tibet. The traveller from the cosmopolitan Chinese direct administration area of Hsi-ning, where the camel is in use, finds himself, on passing the Tibetan frontier, at Tankar, in a vakcountry; and it is possible that ethnical considerations enter into the folk-lore concerning this creature. The Nam-Tig people. though from early times they must have been familiar with the camel, which exists wild in the Altyn-tagh range, probably were, in their agricultural occupation of the fertile uplands of the Nanshan, most concerned with the ass,3 who in the story appears, as we see (p. 132), bell-bearing as safeguarding the sheep. Perhaps the ass-country and the yak-country may have had some natural difference of sentiment. The sheep and the goat are common to all the districts. The camel, which is not mentioned in the Tibetan (fragmentary) version, is perhaps identifiable in the Nam text. The tiger and the bear (dom, gre) may be discovered in both.

Water, the matter of almost the greatest importance in northeastern Tibet and in Tibet generally, is in the Tibetan manuscripts mentioned prominently in connexion with irrigation channels (yan-ba = yur-ba) and the fouling (sbog) of them, principally by

² So in the Tibetan manuscript. On slings or lassos in Tibet see Rockhill, p. 120, Diary, p. 264; Bonvalot, ii, p. 5; Filchner, Om Mani Padme Hum, p. 156.
³ As regards Kan-su see d'Ollone, p. 292.

¹ These two passages were presented, with etymologies, as provisional specimens in the article on the Nam language in *JRAS*. 1939 (see pp. 215–16), and so may, without assuming the conclusions to be reached *infra*, be adduced here. In the discussion of Grammar and Etymology many other such pointed or proverbial sayings will come to light.

wild animals; we also read of clean descents (stegs) to fords. And this helps in the interpretation of some phrases in the Nam text. The recurrent Tibetan expression is

yan-ba-rab-tu-sbog (and sbogs)

'the runnels were utterly fouled (or flooded)',

sbog(s) being in normal Tibetan the Imperative of sbag, 'pollute'; here it is a Preterite, and the root has the o-form. Sbag is properly, no doubt, a Transitive or Causative form of hbag, which is to 'defile oneself', 'be polluted'. In the Nam text we have (l. 256) the verse

rgam-hgah-hkan-hyan-hrag-ma-hbog ||

in which hrag may correspond to Tibetan rags, 'dam, mole, dyke'. Rgam may well be Tibetan sgam, 'deep', unless it should be skam, 'dry'; this cannot be decided by other passages, because rgam, like so many other words, is a homonym. If hkan = Tibetan gan, 'full', which in itself is not improbable and which suits

htor-sñin-hkan-ge, 168 'great-heart-full',

we get the rendering (cf. l. 283, hrag . . . hbog)

'though the deep places were full, the dykes were not fouled'.

'Hot' and 'cold' are naturally prominent in the thoughts of an Amdo people. In the texts there are references to 'the fire of action', 'the fire of speech', 'the fire of going', and perhaps some other metaphorical 'fires'; and 'cold' seems to occur with the sense of 'dispirited', 'unenterprising', 'apprehensive' (see p. 301); 'hot become cold' may refer to defeat or death, and it is said that

'Invested with the great cold (sc. death), the evil are good', and

'Invested with the great cold, evil and good are friends'.

The god or gods (tha = Tib. lha), of whom there is a mention (l. 241), seem to be distinct from the divine being Hises-hieg, who presided over the world-cataclysm, being the wings, eyes, and path of the flying mountains, &c., who again may belong to a stratum different from that of the 'Hnam-people', the upper sky (gnam) folk of the old Bon mythology. Fiends (rhe) are located (l. 385) in dark subterranean hollows.

The social attitude of the text is distinctly aristocratic. The

¹ The evident suggestion (II. 332, 344) that Hées in this name = ées, 'wise', may be folk-etymology. Could this divinity be connected with the Se-bag of Tibetan Literary Texts, &c., i, p. 296, n. 3, or with the Beg-tee, patron of horses, mentioned ibib.?

lde, or influential people, are supposed to exercise supervision, and there were council, or tribal, meetings (hgru-ma). The yak, or 'black-back', whose rise was connected with the ruin of the 'High Town' and the ascendancy of the 'Low Town', seems to represent an antagonism of the commons (the mgo-nag, 'blackheads' of Tibetan and Chinese) to the chiefs or ruling classes; at times they are termed filth (kru = Tib, kru-ra, 'low people'), and they are approved only when duly submissive. The hkyan. who are mentioned sometimes in connexion with the 'house-poor' (na-hpon) or 'house-bondsmen' (na-hldom) and sometimes as 'runaways', may be praedial serfs. Women seem to be snubbed, which is not surprising, because, though free and influential among the nomads, as well as among other populations of Tibet.1 where there have been, or are, 'women's kingdoms', they are nevertheless not highly esteemed by the men. The expression 'a chief who is an inferior person, subject to a woman's words' (l. 84) may illustrate both aspects of the case.

The interest in tombs and 'father's tombs' (rman, hphahrman), Il. 197-207 and elsewhere, may seem paradoxical in the case of a Ch'iang people, who might have been expected to follow one of the known Tibetan practices, such as exposure of the dead upon a mountain, which is usual in Amdo. But, as a matter of fact, the Tibetans, the Yang-t'ung and the Ch'iang of the Women's Kingdom practised burial, and the Tibetans worshipped ancestors at the tomb: the Tang-hsiang burned their dead.2 This, however, may have been only in the case of chiefs and leading persons3 and may have resulted from contact with China or Chinese Turkestan. The prominence of the topic in the Nam text is an example of the fundamental accord of its subject-matter with that of 'the Tibetan manuscripts', one of which is largely concerned with a dispute regarding entombment of a father. In Tibet the topic has maintained its interest down to modern times, as is evidenced by the amusing apologue recorded in Huc and Gabet's book (ii, pp. 83-4).

¹ This is remarked by all travellers: see Rockhill, pp. 213, 230; Tafel, ii, pp. 125-6; Edgar, p. 66; Fergusson, pp. 256, 326 (Lo-lo women). The Vicomte d'Ollone compares (p. 236) the Go-lok women to the indomitable women of the Cimbri or the Teutons.

Authority for these statements in Bushell, pp. 443, 527(9), 531(42), and Rockhill, p. 339.

³ Cf. Rockhill, pp. 286-7, and, as regards Mongol usage, Huc and Gabet, i, pp. 77-80, and Prejevalsky, i, p. 82.

There are references to houses, in a town or village, with sideprojecting roofs, which furnish a shelter for sheep, and in the case of a large one, with a ladder (perhaps the usual notched plank) for ascent; also to the supporting side-posts of the Tibetan tent. The chief economic interest was perhaps the milk-herds, with the sheep, goats, &c., coming next; but certainly there is reference to tillage and harvests. The Tibetan dog, usually an aggressive sentinel, is mentioned. The travelling animals, the sheep which, when their 'fire of going' is exhausted, 'bend down their heads',1 the vaks, which, when their 'stomach-fire (?)' gives out, ask to be 'hobbled' (?), or which, in the lower valleys, 'have their heads released', point to caravan journeys and help to prove that the hdro-ño, 'travel-buy-[people]', are the hdron-po, 'travelling traders' who figure in 'the Tibetan manuscripts' and other old texts, as well as in all modern narratives concerning the Hsi-fan countries and Tibet. We also may detect a reference to the wellattested practice of collecting medicinal herbs and drugs in the mountains. The making of vak-hair cloth for tents and 'a coarse kind of wollen stuff' for 'summer gowns and bags', beside which 'the Koko-nor Tibetans manufacture nothing' (Rockhill, p. 81), are not apparent in the text; but tanning of skins (for sheepskin gowns, &c.), wherein the same Tibetans are expert (ibid.), is certainly the subject of a direct reference and also of a metaphor;2 likewise the leather bellows, indispensable accompaniment of the Tibetan vak-dung (argol) fire.

The Ch'iang man certainly wore a top-knot (thor, also mentioned metaphorically), possibly resembling the 'horn' of the independent Lo-los, who share with the Ch'iang and the Go-lok so many features, including the long spears mentioned supra (pp. 22, 39). The Lo-los, however, claim to have entered their present territory, west and south of the lower T'ung river, as immigrants from the east.

Does the text ever allow its attention to stray outside its own geographical horizon, so as to touch upon matters connected with the adjacent great world of China or with Chinese Turkestan? Certainly we have three trisyllabic expressions which are, no doubt, in some degree proper names, and which denote living beings, since of each of them it is said that they stor-hdor-hyon,

2 Cf. p. 251.

¹ See p. 286, and cf. Cooper, Travels of a Pioneer of Commerce, pp. 238, 241.

which must mean 'were (or will be) made to scatter'. These are: (1) kya-wa-ne, elsewhere hkya-wa-ne and hkya-hwa-ne (ll. 162, 215, 339); (2) hdrab-hwa-hran (ll. 162, 173); (3) the above-mentioned mehi-klu-hcah (ll. 150, 161, 218, 343). Considering that the mehi-klu-hcah have a fabular origin, it seems prudent to reserve a further consideration of any of the three.

But in the expression mon-rdzon (rjon) we have a reference of considerable importance. The phrase clearly means 'Mon-fort', and the reference is to the 'castles of the Mons'. There can be no doubt that this is the sense of the phrase, which occurs in five places; and we have further confirmation in the expression rtsigmon, once ses-hrtsig-mon, occurring three times in Il. 379-81. Rtsig-mon means 'Mon carpenter', rtsig, from rtsig, 'build', having this sense not only in ordinary Tibetan, but also in Hsi-hsia' (rgi, rtsi).

From Rockhill's Land of the Lamas, p. 194, we learn that the Tibetans

'appear to be unable to build but the roughest kind of houses and only those where there is little woodwork. Ssu-ch'uanese carpenters and brick-makers do nearly all the building in eastern Tibet, and also fell the timber necessary for the work. I met large numbers of them on the road to Kanzé, travelling to remote localities, to build temples and bridges, to make plows and pack-saddles and do other kinds of labor in their respective trades.'

On p. 81 he states that 'all their ironware is made by itinerant Chinese smiths who visit their encampments', and in his *Journal*, p. 342, Rockhill states that Chinese carpenters 'travel all over Tibet'.⁴

We do not, however, need to prove that 'Mon' people may have been, as early as the eighth to ninth century A.D., within the purview of the Koko-nor tribes. For a contemporary Tibetan text, recounting the different species of barley, mentions various kinds as Chinese and various kinds as Mon; and in particularizing the species of cotton it speaks of China cotton as grown in 'Chinaplain' (Rgya-mo-than) and Mon cotton as grown in 'Mon-plain'

¹ See infra, pp. 253 sqq.

We naturally think of the towers and forts mentioned supra, p. 71, n. 8.

See Nevsky, No. 77.

⁴ According to Dr. Tafel, ii, p. 155, carpenters and smiths in Tibet are Ssü-ch'uanese, never Tibetans.... In the Rgyal-ron the builders and carpenters belong to a particular tribe (p. 248 n.).

On -n/-n see infra, p. 362.

(Mon-mo-than); and it has frequent references to buildings (rtsig), forts, &c., which upon the indication of the Nam text we may also set down to the Mons.

This is a matter which has very wide and ancient ethnographical connexions. According to the authors of S. C. Das's Tibetan Dictionary, Mon, corresponding to Sanskrit Kirāta, is a

'general name for the different tribes living in the cis-Himalayan regions and who from remote antiquity have lived by hunting',

and Mon-yul, 'Mon-country', is 'the sub-Himalayan regions extending from Kashmir to Assam'. But also Mon-Pa-gro, which should be Mon-Spa-gro, is

'the town and province of Pa-ro, the seat of government of West Bhutan',

and Mon-rta-dwang, Mon Rta-dban, is 'a small principality on the eastern border of Bhutan, inhabited by a barbarous semi-Tibetan race engaged in trading operations between Tibet and Assam'. Rockhill states (JRAS. 1891, pp. 128-9, n. 3) that the Lissus, Mishmis, Lepchas, &c., of Nepal and Sikkim, &c., are known to the Tibetans as Mon.

This is not by any means the full range of the name. The late Professor A. H. Francke, in the narrative of his journey in the western Himālaya (Antiquities of Indian Tibet, vol. i) from the Sutlej valley to Ladak, found many ruins of villages, shrines, and cemeteries universally attributed to the Mons, whom he regards (p. 54) as the pre-Tibetan inhabitants of the country. In his A History of Western Tibet Chapter II is devoted to the Mons, of whom in every western Tibetan village are found one or more families; the people 'are mostly musicians or carpenters, and are treated with little respect by the rest of the population. . . . Zangskar, I was told by the inhabitants, was once entirely in the hands of the Mons. The ruins of the old castles are still called "Mon-castles" (Mon-mkhar) (pp. 19-20). Similarly in Antiquities, ii, p. 100, 'Mons, joiners and carpenters by profession, also of low caste, though not quite so low as the Bhe-da'.

From Professor Francke's Mons of Ladak and Dardistan the Mons adjacent to the Koko-nor region are separated by a thousand miles of geographical distance, not very seriously reduced, as regards difficulty of communication, by the thin line of cis-Himālayan Mons extending as far east as Assam; and there is

¹ The Geografia Tibeta has (p. 37) Mon-rta-lwan.

also, as concerns our present information, a time-interval of a thousand years. The latter interval is about halved by the Tibetan Royal Chronicle, which in its earlier portions preserves some items of old (Bon-po) tradition; it speaks (Francke, Antiquities, ii, p. 66) of four kinds of primitive 'frontier dwarfs', i.e. peoples outside the frontier of the author's country; these are the Chinese Raya of Gam-san ('the Gam mountains'), the Turks (Hor) of the Gyim-san ('the Altai mountains'?), the Mons of Ha-le, and the Spu-rgyal Tibetans. The corresponding four tribes of 'interior dwarfs', which also are named, belong to Tibet; they comprise the Zan-zun people, of the Kailasa region; the Gton-gsum-pa or Ton-gsum-pa, perhaps = the Sum-pa mentioned above; the Ldon Me-ñag (also considered above); and the Se-Ha-za. It is apparent that the primitive Mons are here, like the Mons of our text, not a part of the interior population, but an outside people, like the Chinese and the Turks.

The only people with a name resembling Mon who could have been within the purview of the Koko-nor tribes are those known to early Chinese history as the northern, or the western, Man. The former are mentioned in the Shih-chi (De Groot, op. cit. i, p. 2) as a people among whom dwelt the Jung and other tribes; and De Groot is of opinion that the two names are general designations of the northern peoples. The 'Man of the west' and the I of the north are stated to have been in 110 B.C. still not entirely under Chinese authority.1 These western Man are elsewhere also associated with the I. Chang-Ch'ien, the celebrated emissary to the west, enjoyed, c. 140 B.C., the favour of the Man and the I (De Groot, op. cit. ii, p. 11); the people of the Man and the I were greedy for the riches and products of China (ibid. ii, p. 26); in connexion with the campaign against the Ch'iang in c. 62 B.C., it was said that prognostics threatened the Man and I with severe defeats (ibid. ii, p. 210). In the eighth century B.C. there were at the source of the Yung river, in middle Honan, and farther west, Jung of the Man races (ibid. ii, p. 191, Wylie, p. 429). About 500 B.C. the Man were completely subdued (ibid. ii, p. 192).

The Man of the Yung river were, no doubt, too far east to be within the contemplation of the Ch'iang tribes. But it is, at any rate, transparent that the term Man was used in an ethnographical, and not merely a political, sense; and it seems possible that some of those 'further west' may have been well known. In that case

¹ De Groot, i, p. 147.

we may venture the inquiry whether the Ha-le-Mon of the Tibetan Chronicle may have been 'Mon of the Alashan' and adjacent (Ning-hsia) region. It is likely that they may have been assimilated by the Chinese earlier than the Ch'iang of the western frontier, and had acquired handicrafts, which, like the modern Ssŭ-ch'uanese carpenters, &c., they practised also among the barbarians of the Tibetan mountains.

Possible relations of these Mons to the Man-peoples of southern China are matter for Sinologists; and the Mons of the cis-Himālaya, the western Himālavan countries, and Ladak are similarly outside our present scope. We can, however, see clearly that the Mon country to which, at the close of the eighth century A.D., the victorious Tibetans transported the people of Pei-t'ing, the people of Ge-sar (JRAS, 1931, p. 828; Tibetan Texts and Documents, i, pp. 273-4), is far more likely to have been some district in the part of China then under their control than remote regions in the west; and, in fact, the Ge-sar story is specially popular in eastern Tibet.1 The event decidedly recalls the history (p. 24) of the Sha-t'o Turks transported by the Tibetans to Kan-chou after the conquest of Pei-t'ing in A.D. 790. But certainly there were other Man peoples within their immediate horizon: the south-eastern boundary of the Ch'iang of the Women's Kingdom approached Ya-chou, being separated from that place 'by the Lonü Man and the Pailang tribe' (Bushell, p. 531 (42)); and to the south of Yachou was the kingdom of the Nan-chao Man, including the town of Ning-yüan-fu in southernmost Ssu-ch'uan and Tali-fu in Yün-nan; which kingdom in the first half of the eighth century A.D. conquered the adjoining Man tribes and, becoming conterminous with the Tibetans, fought against and afterwards submitted to them (ibid., p. 531 (41)).

There may have been other Man tribes farther north and actually within the Rgyal-ron. For the 'Kretschiu', whose domain lies between the state of So-mo and Sung-p'an, are said (Tafel, ii, p. 248 n.) to have a dialect of the Rgyal-ron language unintelligible to the rest of the population and to differ in clothing and other matters from their neighbours, with whom they are constantly at strife. 'Their country is a poor mountain region, greatly overpopulated in proportion to its productivity. Every year the inhabitants resort to the surrounding districts as manual workers,

¹ See Rockhill, *Diary*, pp. 130, 165; Baber, op. cit., pp. 88-9; Tafel, ii, pp. 110, 158-9, 169, 246.

especially as masons and carpenters.' To their north are the Bo-lo-tse, by the Tibetans called 'Kredyan', who again differ, and of whom Dr. Tafel gives a description, holding that linguistically they appertain to the wild peoples of the Chinese border, and the Tibetan speech family.

The Ya-chou region is part of the area where are seen the towers, described and illustrated by many travellers, which we have already (p. 150) connected with the phrase 'Mon-fort'. The towers are by tradition associated (like the excavated caves in the same regions) with the Man-tzū people, and that they are an ancient feature of the country cannot be doubted, since the Later Han Annals inform us (Wylie, pp. 241-2) that the barbarian inhabitants built houses of stone, the tallest being over 100 feet high.

A linguistic interest attaches to the possibility of a Man = Mon influence upon the people of the Rgyal-ron. From a Tibeto-Burman Mon language the Rgyal-ron and other Hsi-fan dialects may have derived the accretion of syllabic Prefixes which differentiates those dialects (see supra, pp. 95-7), but especially those of the Rgyal-ron, and the source of which is mysterious. In applying the term Mon to the Mishmis and other tribes situated north of Assam the Tibetans are not likely to be mistaken; and the Man of the Sino-Tibetan border in southern Ssu-ch'uan and northern Yün-nan can hardly, if akin to those tribes, have failed to possess syllabic Prefixes in their language. One of the Rgyalron Prefixes, namely ka, prefixed to adjectives, is so, in fact. employed in Abor-Miri, Dafla, and Mishmi, as well as in Kachin and other groups of Tibeto-Burman (Linguistic Survey of India, III. i, pp. 589, 619). A borrowing of the Prefixes would evade the paradox of a special preservation of them in the Rgyalron ages after others, regarded as analogous and not more ancient. had been reduced in the same dialects to vestigial consonants.

In the Nam text the 'Mon-fort' appears not merely by way of casual reference, but as a central feature. The passages

'Heat being great, the Mon-fort was lost' (78, 139)

'The horse yielding place, the Mon-fort was lost' (139)

'The horse hgam being made, the Mon-fort was lost' (118)

'Low Town becoming high, the Mon-fort lost . . .' (128)

'Low Town becoming high, the black-back flourished' (135)

give joint prominence to the successive stages of one event, namely, world-cataclysm and city-conflagration, flight of the chief-

tain to a settlement in the steppes and rise of the plebs of the Low Town. The antithesis of 'High Town' (mtho-mkhar) and 'Low Town' (dmah-mkhar) appears in 'the Tibetan manuscripts', where we read also of building the 'upper town (rlan-mkhar) aloft. aloft', the upper mansion (rla-khyim) and courtvard (phyugs-ra), and the upper path zig-zag (rla-lam-squa-squo), i.e. the winding ascent to the castle; and the situation persists in modern Tibet. where the monasteries, and, of course, the forts (rdzoń), commonly occupy elevations towering over the residential town. The heaven paradise (gnam) was conceived on the same lines, having the 'castle eminent' (rdzań-stod) at its summit and pastoral districts, with the stars for cattle, in the vales. The fabulistic beings, horse, vak, &c., of the Nam text formed a similarly constituted state. In one of the Tibetan manuscripts the horse's descent from the upper (gnam), through the lower (dgun), heaven, the horse-vak tragedy, and the entry of the horse into the service of man are the chief theme. In both cases a secondary purpose of the tales, as parables, is partly explicit.

We may be interested to inquire how the Nam text and kindred Tibetan material came to be transmitted, in both cases, as we have seen, orally, to the Tibetan religious world in Sa-cu. It might not be an incredible supposition that in a place which during four or five centuries had been a literary centre, of whose many-sided activity we have now so abundant manuscript remains, there should have been an 'enlightened interest' in the folk-lore of the Nam-Tig people. But another extensive manuscript, already mentioned, which has a predominantly religious (Bon-po) character, may indicate that among the numerous shrines in Sa-cu there were some with Bon-po rather than Buddhist interests:1 and it may be remembered that Taoist literature is largely represented in the mass of the Chinese manuscripts. Hence it may be that the sacred lore of the Nam-Tig, which is at any rate faintly Bon-po, had a religious value in the minds of some community in Sa-cu.

As to the communicating medium we may detect an indication in the Nam text itself. After the Tibetan interpolation in l. 180 the text continues:

rbyo-po-nań-gsań-hśeg-hlab-dze-rbyo-hpro-hro-grtehe-htastel-re-hlab-ta-gbohu-ste-ge-hthogs-re-hlab-ge-planna.

¹ The divinity Hées-hbeg (supra, pp. 138, 142) may have been a Bon, if not pre-Bon, conception.

Here the first words may mean

'the rbyo-man speaking of coming on the morrow (nan, or "within") secretly (gsan, or is nan-gsan simply = Tibetan san-nan, "morrow morning"?)';

and the next phrase,

rbyo-hpro-hro-grtehe-hta-stel-re,

will mean

'consenting to (stel-re) the fixing (grtehe-hta) of a place (hro) for continuing (hp(h)ro),

since (1) stel may be = Tib. ster 'grant', e.g. in nan-du-hgro-ster, 'consent to come inside'; (2) grtehe-hta, with verb Suffix ta, is perhaps connected with Hsi-hsia hrde, gdeh, 'fix', 'establish', 'institute', and will accordingly mean 'fixing', 'determining'; (3) hpro = Tibetan hphro, meaning 'going forward', 'continuing', e.g. hphro-blans, 'resumption of an unfinished work', hphro-machad-pa, 'continuation not interrupted'. The remainder is:

'talk (hlab-ta) gushing (gbohu-ste = Tib. hbo-ste, cf. pp. 230-2, 313) being stopped (hthogs-re = Tib. thogs-te, cf. p. 301), talk plan ("course", "substance"?) (as follows?).

That a rbyo or rbyo-po is a person cannot be doubted; for we find the verse (ll. 102-3)

rbyo-sñań-ge-sñań-na-rgoń-ru-ge-ḥru, which must mean

'if the heart (or affection)³ of a rbyo is a heart, then the horn (= end) of an egg is a horn',

the 'horns' of an egg (Tib. sgon-ru) being its 'ends'; and an egg in eastern Tibet is commonly compared to a head, as we may learn from the riddle reported by Dr. Tafel (Meine Tibetreise, ii, p. 337): 'Even at birth it has a white head. What is that?' (an egg). Elsewhere also (Il. 82, 102) the rbyo receives the same compliment. What rbyo may mean etymologically we are not yet in a position to suggest, the possibilities being too numerous and complex, and the other occurrences of the word furnishing no definite indications; but see p. 333. Substantially a 'rbyo-man' may conceivably have been a Bon-po, a 'Bon-man', in which case his functioning in the matter would need no further explanation.

¹ Nevsky, No. 25.

² In Il. 245-6 it is antithetical to hlad, 'retaliate',

On sñañ = sñiñ or sñan see infra, p. 367.

The concluding phrase, hlab-ge-planna, if it means, as suggested infra (pp. 241-2), 'as to the street (sc. the general course, in contrast to the previous "gushing") of his talk', may be helpful as explaining the apparent disconnectedness of the sections in the latter part of the text, selections, perhaps, giving only the salient passages in the speaker's eloquence.

Stylistically the text is less naïve than might have been expected. Antithesis of word and phrase and parallelism of sentence, so characteristic of Tibetan folk-literature (supra, pp. 51–2), are frequently evident even upon mere inspection of the lines of verse as printed infra; see the passage quoted on p. 213. Towards the end of the manuscript occurs a series of more elaborate parallels, as in the two sentences:

śes-rtsig-moń-ge-htsah-hrahihwehi-hrtah-ge hrtsig-moń-hkuń-na rtsig-moń-hsad-na tsig-moń-we-ge-htsah-hpuhloho hdza-hldahi-hne-ge-tsah-rgyehrdza-na hdzah-hldah-hkun-na hdza-ldah-hsad-na hdzah-hldah-hwehi-ge-htsahrgye-hlo

Intentional rhyme may be seen, e.g. in

hstor-moń-hdzoń-re-htsa-hdzo-hkrom gsu-prom-hńo[-]r[e]-htsah-hpu-hdrom || (ll. 64–5)

and inversion of antithetic predicates (hrgom and hrgam) in hrgom-hkhru[-]r[e]-hto-na-hpehi-hrgam-re-hto (l. 169)

Finally there are instances (see infra, pp. 269, 285, 304) of play upon words, e.g. on hdro, 'go', and hdro, 'heat', in

hphu-hphu-mu[-]r[e]-hdzu-hdro-hkus (l. 352)
'his blowings [boastings] being chill, the ass desired to go (heat)'.

which pun recurs in ll. 170-1.

So far we have been guided partly by comparison with adequately comprehensible texts in a known language, the Tibetan, and partly by etymological considerations in connexion with Tibetan words. In this procedure, which may perhaps seem to have yielded some plausible results, it is presumed that the Nam language was at a stage comparable to that of the earliest Tibetan popular speech, especially as found in texts from the east and northeast. This presumption has been to some extent justified supra (pp. 109–110). But it does not follow that quite normally the similarly spelled words in the two languages can be provisionally

equated. As was so emphatically stated by B. H. Hodgson in his pioneer researches into Tibeto-Burman 1 and other languages, and as appears prominently in the late Dr. Laufer's very learned and ingenious study of Hsi-hsia words, there is generally a core of root-form and root-meaning connecting the parallel expressions in the several languages; but this nucleus may be so disguised by the play of Prefixes and Suffixes, and, according to Dr. Laufer, by composition of synonyms into a single monosyllable and by other processes, as to be discoverable only by procedures of analysis which, applied to languages known only in modern forms, may be hazardous. The Nam words are at least contemporaneous with the Tibetan; nevertheless a too great resemblance between a Nam monosyllable and a Tibetan one may be even suggestive of nonconnexion, more especially since in the very extensive vocabulary of Tibetan we are always in danger of overlooking unfamiliar homonyms and variant spellings; and deception is all the more likely because equivalents for Nam words may perhaps tend to occur among the obscurer, because provincial or obsolete, entries of the lexicon.2 It is therefore advisable to make citations, where possible, from the vocabulary of old texts or modern languages belonging to the region in question.

In some instances a suspicion, such as has been mentioned in JRAS. 1939, p. 212, in regard to the word rdzogs = Tibetan rdzogs, 'fulfilled', disappears upon reflection. The word seems to be a fairly complex form and accordingly open to such suspicion; but the r-Prefix is even more characteristic of the north-eastern dialects and of the Nam than of ordinary Tibetan; and the final s will be shown to be independently justified in both. Nevertheless the occurrence in the text of Tibetan words, either imported into the language or due to the scribe or editor, remains a possibility; but not on the same scale as in modern times, when, largely owing to Buddhist establishments and communications, the Tibetan language is nearly everywhere understood.³

The help obtainable from the Tibetan texts to which reference has been made consists mainly in the light which they throw upon the environment and the interests of the people from whom the

1 Op. cit., pp. 132-6, 150-1.

² There may also be in Tibetan many words originally borrowed from Ch'iang, either orally or through old Tibetan texts originated in the local monasteries.

³ See *supra*, p. 87, n. 1.

Nam composition emanated. We see that there was oral literature of the Purāṇic kind which has been mentioned, framed on the notion of an age of bliss and harmony of species, followed by a world-cataclysm leading to division and strife. There were fables relating probably to the origins of tribes, and in some cases continuations into actual historical matters. The enmities among animals, of which the most prominent, that between horse and yak, is a main subject in the Nam text and in one of the Tibetan texts, may also have partly an inter-tribal or inter-regional bearing. The predominance of the animal world is, in another way, a hindrance, since it restricts the information which might have been available concerning the livelihood and manners of human beings; probably also it greatly restricts the vocabulary.

In regard also to the form of the composition, mainly verse, and the style and turns of expression and some particular ideas, the Tibetan texts are somewhat helpful. They prepare us for interweaving of prose and verse and for the rhetorical devices of parallelism and antithesis, also for great curtness of statement; even in the Tibetan texts there may be a gap between the understanding of the words of a sentence and the apprehension of its meaning, the syntactical apparatus being inadequate. In respect of vocabulary the prima facie assistance of the Tibetan is meagre, and it is only here and there that we can pick out a more or less similar Tibetan word whose meaning fits a context; and, as in Tibetan itself, the frequency of homophones prevents any confident expectation that, when we next meet the word, it will have the same meaning. The inadequacy of other means of ascertaining the significations of the shifty monosyllables has been discussed supra; and we seem to be dependent in the main upon context, acquired familiarity, and lucky intuitions, confirmable a posteriori, until a wide breach in the obscurity of the text shall have prepared us for a more rapid advance.

So far as the matter has at present proceeded it may be helpful to risk a tentative abstract of the content of the text, as follows:

ABSTRACT OF TEXT

(Provisional and partly conjectural)

- I. Lines 1-247 (end of a Chapter, hkon).
- Lines 1-166: (beginning fragmentary). The cosmic cataclysm and its effects.

Lines 1-16: Effects in the physical world, mountains uplifted, &c.; controlled by H\u00edese-hbeg, ll. 7-8; opposition of mor and hyan (evil and good), ll. 9-10.

Lines 16-19: Some effects among living creatures.

Lines 19-29: Continuation of 1-16.

Lines 29–49: Account of hgru-hldan-hmah; disunion among the horse's friends, Il. 35–6; reflections upon evils and their consequences.

Lines 49-61: Disadvantages of greatness.

Lines 62-71: Hgru-hldan-hmah: discontent after the loss of the Mon-castle; rejected helpers become opponents, and wish to retire to their own abodes; different creatures have their several appropriate dwelling-places.

Lines 71–80: Waning fortune brings feebleness, has moonlight in place of sunlight, and the fallen are replaced. The

horse, when the hgru-ma is lost, takes to flight.

Lines 80–100: The horse's family not displeased to be rid of a superior. The horse's friends are disaffected; disunion arises and works against friendship; forgetfulness of harm from outside encourages cleavage within. The horse's friends forget the horse's merits.

Friendship is a thing that comes and goes. Disunion gradually works its way in, causing downfall of prosperity

and finally of the feminine side.

Lines 100-164: Speech of the camel in the horse's family concerning the evils of disunion (101-3), the advantage of taking counsel (104-6), the necessity of protecting the horse's feminine household, like sheep from wolves (106-11), the importance of uprightness and the danger of delay and the reasons for urgency, the ruin of the family to follow the already accomplished loss of the Moń-castle (111-19).

Verses concerning friendship (120-4), uprightness (124-7). The rise of the black-back (yak) and the necessity of assembling friends to suppress him (127-36). The occasion calls for action on the part of the males; when those in flight join together, the aggressors flee (137-40). Other reflections concerning flight (140-4). What happens in the case of flight in battle (144-9) and of stopping flight (149-52). Individual initiative; enmity and friendship dissolved by death; triumph and victorious return home

(152-8). Bad beginnings lead to failure (158-60). The classes of creatures which will be put to flight (160-4).

Lines 164-80: With the horse as watchman the Big Man is master of the land, which is protected against thieves; &c. Boundaries of the land ordained. The land returns after the earthquake to its proper position. The horse's fugitive friends return.

Possession and deprival of the faculty of speech in the case of some classes of creatures.

Line 180: In Tibetan: 'From then [kinds and] descents [of species] came: this is stated as secret.'

Lines 181-2: Statement concerning the speaker (rbyo-po)'s narrative.

Lines 182-end: Selections from an oral recitation.

Lines 182-4: Brief account of restoration of order.

Lines 184-222: Consideration of the danger from the yak; the danger on the side of the females, ll. 188-90; proposed abandonment of the city for another home, ll. 190-7; concerning burial and ancestral tombs, ll. 197-211; proposal to depart to the hgam in the than and, uniting together, to organize a chase of the yak, ll. 211-22.

Lines 222-49: Passionate appeal for an expedition of vengeance against the yak and the hcha.

End of Chapter.

II. Lines 249-53: Brief statement concerning the defeat of the yak and general satisfaction.

Lines 253-85: Long description of the happy circumstances

of restored peace.

Lines 285-301: The social order, the wise, good, &c., in authority, the evil fled, the nobles in authority, the commons subservient, Il. 285-9; the Big Man and his subjects on the watch-mountain.

Lines 301-13: Classes of creatures, good and bad, on the mountain.

Lines 313-25: Reflections concerning relation of classes, supervision, and contact with inferiors.

Lines 325–44: General reflections upon what has taken place and concerning rgyo (329–36).

Lines 344-52: Proverbial sayings concerning government.

Lines 352-7: Summary concerning happy conditions restored. Lines 358-68: Concerning profit (? kehu-prom) and friend-

ship.

Lines 368-97: Future prosperity and agreement of friends and enemies: mention of braves and their deeds (377-8), the dead (enemies?) (378), the 'wise Mon carpenters' (379-81), females (381-2), makers of friendship (382-3), the 'good lieges' (383-4), the fiends in their dark cavities beneath the mountains sunk down again (384-5). Distinction of highland and lowland (385-7).

Final reflections (387-98).

(Fragmentary termination)

Note. The Berlin fragment, from Turfan, published by the late Professor A. H. Francke (Berlin Academy Sitzungsberichte, 1927, pp. 124 sqq.), facsimile with a for the most part acceptable transliteration, was attributed to an 'unknown language' and from the occurrence of some terms explicable from Tibetan regarded as of medical tenour. In the JRAS, of 1928 (pp. 633-4) it was pointed out that the language is in fact the 'Nam' of the present text: and subsequently (1939, pp. 196-8) the proof was reinforced, and Professor Francke's etymologies, though favourably viewed, were found to be, by reason of some other expressions, inconclusive as to the character of the whole. Those other expressions seemed to point to an account of the decline of the Good Age, and it appears possible that the diseases identified by Francke are mentioned as operant in that decline: the MS, will then have contained a variant, no doubt widely different, 'rhapsody' on the theme of our text. This, however, though possibly provable, lacks present confirmation.

IV. THE LANGUAGE: GRAMMAR

In the investigation of the language it seems appropriate, since observations in detail may be illusory, to commence with its general morphological features. The script and punctuation enable us to ascertain both the forms of the words and the structure of the sentences, with which two matters we may accordingly begin.

A. WORD-FORMS

The words of the Nam language are, if we disregard one or two classes of apparent exceptions, all monosyllabic. They all begin with a consonant or a group of consonants. In the groups there are some consonants which by their alternating presence and absence are proved to be Prefixes analogous to those of the Tibetan language, the basic identity of a word with and without a Prefix being established by similarity of occurrence. The Prefixes so disclosed are h, g, d, b, r, l, s, and perhaps m, these being also the regular Prefixes known in Tibetan. Examples:

 h-, which has been discussed supra, pp. 118-20, both in general and with regard to alternation with g-, need not be further exemplified, since, as occurring very widely and capriciously, it cannot be credited with a function.

2. g-, as alternating with h-, has been exemplified (p. 118-19) in gñi, gdim, gldag, gnag, gpha, gmog, g-yo, g-rah, g-ri. We may here add:

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gkom, 222 (swa° °re) = hkom, 175 (swa° °re)
gcig, 356 (ste-he-hdzu-ge) = cig, 194 (ste-gdzu-ge)
gcihi, 346 = hci/hcihi, 205, 301, 348, 350
gcog, 69
gcheg, 111, 234 (gceg) = hceg, 250
gñi, 80
gñim, 12
gtan, 186 = htan, 96
gton, 211 (hgo°) = hton, 212 (hko)
gstor, 143 (°htor), 152 (°ta) = stor, 118, &c. (°hdor), 145, &c.
(°ta)
grtehe, 181 = hrtehu, 265 (?)
gdah, 191 = hdah, 108
gdag, 200, 204, 206 = hdag, 259, 260, 261
gdes, 260
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gdod, 186
gnah, 179, &c. (°goń, °hgoń) = na, 358 (°hgon, °hgon)
gbohu, 181 = hbo, 263
gblan, 265
gtsan, 165 (hsah°) = htsan, 378 (hsah°)
gtsu, 214 = htsu, 193, 304, htsuhu, 166, 303 = htshu, 75,
  76, 215, tshu, 206
gtsob, 351, 352
g-wah/hgwah, 224, 229 (°hrśań) = hwa, 228 (°hrśań) =
  hwah, 224 (°hrśań)
 (g-we, 197, &c. = hwe, 85, &c., we, 114, &c.
 g-wehi, 199, 263 = hwehi, 22, &c., 139, &c.
 g-wehe, 201, &c. = hwehe, 348
 (g-wer, 164, 301 = hwer, 19)
gzu, 307, &c. (°hbyi) = gdzu, 305, &c. (°hbyi)
gzu, 353 (°hdro) = hdzu, 183, 352 (°hdro)
gzo, 165 = hdzoho, 362
g-yah, 287 (°hthan) = hyah, 285, &c. (°hthan)
g-yan, 31 (°ra) = hyan, 66, 226 (°hrah)
g-yehi, 271, g-yehe, 166 = hgyehi, 209 (?)
g-ver, 167 (hscah°), 330 (hsah°) = yer, 141 (hsah°) = hyer,
   267 (hsah°), 297 (hscah°)
 g-yog, 15, 51, 200, 320
 g-yog, 156 = byog, 289, 324, &c.
 g-rub, 261 = hrub, 108, 349
 g-ron, 71
 glab, 180 = hlab, 180, &c.
 glo, 116 (pu°) = hlo, 135 (pu°)
 gśań, 30, 263, &c. = hśań, 81, 199, 255, &c.
 gśi, 44, 244 (śes°, hśes°) = hśi, 44, 245 (śes°, hśes°)
 gśim, 268
 gśe, 49 (°hdzro-hňah) = hśehe, 369 (°rdzor-hňah)
 gśeg, 381 (°gśer) = hśeg, 330 (°gśegra)
 gsog, 7, 20 = hsog, 8, 20
 gsah, 276, 333 = hsah, 165, 166, &c.
 gsan, 228 (°hrah) = hsan, 226 (°hrah)
 gsar, 204 = hsar, 255
 gsas, 262 = hsas, 59, 116, &c.
 gsu/gsus, 64, 99 (°slo) = hsus, 93 (°slo)
 gse, 327 (°hko-hgyan) = hsehi, 325 (°hko-hgyan) = hsehe,
   327 (°hkho-ho-hgyan)
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gsen, 349 gso, 151, 193, 194 gsohu, 358 = hso, 201 gsom, 23, 178, 206, &c. gsom, 10, 117, &c. (?)

There are also forms with gw- (hgweg), gy- (hgyud, hgyeb, gyim, &c.), gr- (gras, hgru, gre, hgro, &c.), gl- (gla, hglu, glehu, glog, &c.), in which the g is not a Prefix.

3. d-:

dgu, 75, 77, 225, &c. = dguḥu, 236, 244
dgu, 127 = hgu, 126
ddyim, 95 (°pyi) = gdim, 88, &c. (°pyi, °phyi) = dim, 95 = hdim, 88.

- 4. b-: For a list of b-forms in the Verb system see p. 194: and concerning the remaining three, bzir, bzer, bzod see infra.
 - 5. m-: mnar, 261 (myag 39 &c. may not contain m-Prefix).
 - 6. r-: List and discussion pp. 347-52.
- l-: lgyoho, 11, lpyoho, 22. The numerous words with ld-, ldy-, may not contain l-Prefix: see pp. 317 sqq., 353-4.
 - 8. s-: See pp. 354 sqq., list and discussion.

In the manipulation of the Prefixes and in the resultant wordforms there is a general resemblance to Tibetan. But a further examination elicits certain differences.

In the first place, d- and m- are so scantily represented that they can scarcely be said to exist in the Nam language. The former occurs in only three words, namely the somewhat frequent dgu, 'hot', usually antithetical to mu, 'cold', another dgu/hgu probably = '9' (Tib. dgu), and ddyim, a casual variant of dim/gdim/hdim. M- is apparent only in miar (a single instance) and possibly in myag, 'spoiled', 'corrupted', the former being perhaps Locative of a miah = Tib. miah, 'power', &c., and the latter, also Tibetan, having an m- which need not be a Prefix. Since dgu, 'hot', also is found in 'the Tibetan manuscripts' and ddyim may be a scribal error, the four actual words may be merely Tibetan writings.

G frequently alternating with h-, reminds us of regular alternations, e.g. gcad/hchad in the Tibetan verb-system, where irregularities have ensued. In Nam the fluctuations extend to cases like gpha/hpha (Tib. pha), 'father', where there can be no question of functional difference, actual or original. Hence it must be that

g- and h- were phonetically indistinguishable when Prefixed to initial consonants, which implies that the g- had become a mere nasalization. Trace of an original difference may perhaps be seen in hdzoho/gzo, 'eat', because a change dz > z may have taken place. as in Tibetan, after g- (and b-), but not after h- (or l-); but in the case of gdzu/gzu/hdzu/hzu/hju, 'ass', even this trace is lost. There are also outside the verb-system instances of g- alternating with absence of Prefix, e.g. gnag/nag, 'black', gnah/na, 'place', g-rah/ra, 'place'; but, since h- occurs with these words also, the case is not different from that of the alternation g-/h-.

In these circumstances the question of a functional g- in the verb-system becomes difficult: it may be considered infra (pp. 196-7).

B-, except in the tense-system (infra, p. 194), occurs only in the three words, bzir, 'true', 'wise' (?), bzer, 'fort' (?), bzod, 'bear' (verb), of which the first and third are απαξ είρημένα, the second and third Tibetan: bžir is possibly = Hsi-hsia gžir, 'wise' (Nevsky, No. 281). In view of the rarity of z and z in Nam it seems likely that all three are loan-words.

R., l., s., are discussed infra, pp. 347 sqq.

L-, except in the combinations ld-, ldy- (pp. 317 sqq., 324 sqq.), where it is probably not a Prefix, has few examples, which seem, however, to be genuine. R- and s- are common, and instances are found both where the Tibetan has an equivalent, or at least some Prefix, and where it has not: and this raises a question as to a surviving functional value of the r- and s- in the two languages, where they seem to have become for the most part merely lexical. Cases like rgu/hgu, 'steal' (Tib. rku, lku), rgyen = Tib. g-yen, 'uphill', smyi/myi, 'man' (Tib. mi, myi) do not seem explicable through the verb-system, but have parallels in the Hsi-fan dialects, e.g. in the case of a rbya, 'bird' (supra, p. 94). They may be due to particular analogies or to an incipient feeling of classification, observed, for instance, by Dr. Laufer (Toung-pao, xv (1914), pp. 108-9) in connexion with m- and with the l- of some Tibetan names for parts of the body. Of the syllabic Prefixes of Hsi-fan (supra, pp. 95-7) there is in Nam no trace.

The phonetical restrictions in the application of the Prefixes may best be shown in a table affording a comparison with Tibetan, Žan-žun, and Hsi-hsia (in Tibetan transcription): see Appendix to

this chapter, pp. 206-11 sqq.

Disregarding Prefixes, which probably were felt as distinct, even

when not clearly used as functional, the initial consonants and consonant groups in the Nam language are as follows:

1	п
Without following consonant	With following consonant
k kh	kw, ky, kr, kl khw, khy, khr
g n	gw, gy, gr, gl, gly ny (?)
c, ch, j, ñ	Ann day day
t th d	tw, ty, tr thw, thy, thr dw, dy, dr
n	an, 100, an
P ph b m	pw, py, pr, pl phy, phr, phl by, br, bl my (before a, i, and e)
ts tsh	tsw
dz w	dzw
ż (3 words only)z (a few words) confused with dz (?)	
h	
У	
r l	rw, rl lt, ld, ldy, (g)ly
ś s	sw, sr, sl, sk, sky, skh, sc, sñ, st, sp, spy, sby, sm, smy, sts, sś (partly wth s-Prefix?)
7 (6)	

h (?)

The cases with a single consonant call for little comment. It has been remarked (p. 114) that the rarity of \dot{z} and z suggests that the sounds did not properly belong to the language. The only words with \dot{z} are

bžir, bžer, ržan

of which bzir is possibly Hsi-hsia and bzer, 'fort' ('mart'?, 'magazine'?), is common in old Tibetan names, while rzań may (but

see p. 352) be a casual variant of $r\acute{s}a\mathring{n}$, $\hbar r\acute{s}a\mathring{n}$. In the Berlin manuscript we find also $\grave{z}e$ (Il. 2, 3), perhaps a similar variant of je, which occurs (l. 10) in the same connexion. Nam z occurs in

hzah, hzu, and gzu (with variants hju, gdzu, and hdzu), gzo, bzod, (g)bzah (?)

Since none of these, except gzu (2) and hzu (2), has more than a single occurrence, and since gzo, bzod, and $bza\hat{n}$ all exist as Tibetan words, it is likely a priori that, if not scribal errors, all the words are borrowed.¹ H initial occurs, except as a Prefix, only in the particle hi.

The combinations of w, y, r, l with preceding tenuis (k, &c.), aspirate (kh, &c.), and media (g, &c.) are common to Tibetan, Nam, Žan-žun, and in part to old Burmese, and must be regarded as a feature of all early Tibeto-Burman speech (see supra, pp. 62–3). The Nam differs notably from Tibetan in presenting y after dental sounds, t, th, d, l (gl), being supported, as regards thy by Hsi-hsia, and as regards dy by Žan-žun. The combinations pw and dzw are peculiar to Nam: plantifical planting <math>plantifical planting presenting <math>planting presenting present <math>plantifical planting present <math>plantifical planting present <math>planting present <math>planting present present present <math>planting present present <math>planting present present present <math>planting present present present <math>planting present present <math>planting present present <math>planting present present <math>planting present present present <math>planting present present <math>planting present present present <math>planting present present present <math>planting present present present present present <math>planting present p

In Tibetan the writing q-y serves to distinguish cases where the q is a Prefix from those, written gy, where the g belongs to the root; and the distinction is usually confirmed by the other evidence. The Nam follows the same procedure in connexion with wand ralso, writing g-w and g-r where the g is a Prefix (infra. pp. 336-7). The usage has not been extended, as it might have been, to 1;3 and so we find glab written where g-lab would certainly have been correct. It is therefore possible both in Nam and in Tibetan that some apparent roots commencing with gl may contain an originally Prefixed g; and this is certainly the case with Nam glan, Tibetan glan, connected with the root lan, len. Analogously the b in br, bl, by, and possibly even a d in dr, dy, may in some cases once have been a Prefix; and this again is exemplified in Tibetan blan, blans. Similarly, in words commencing with sk, st, sp. sb, sm, sts, the s may once have been Prefixal; and in some words, e.g. spo (cf. hpho), stu, sdu (cf. hdu, hthu), that is certain.

On w in Nam see pp. 336 sqq.

¹ The Berlin fragment has, however, zor (II. 2, 7), which again may be Tibetan. On hzu, gzu, see infra, pp. 251-2 sqq., and on z generally pp. 334-6 sqq.

In Hsi-hsia (Nevaky, Nos. 239, 246) g-lih occurs (as a variant of gli, lih, li); also b-lih.

This is a matter which could be discussed only in detail and need be discussed only when and where, if anywhere, it assumes a significance: there are some adverbial words or formatives, Tibetan ste, sto, Nam sta, ste, sto, in which the s cannot have been a Prefix. We have noted supra certain combinations not to be found in Nam, whether represented, as in Tibetan, by a compound alphabetic sign, or otherwise.

The final consonants and consonant-groups are as in normal Tibetan, namely:

and h sometimes (as in Tibetan manuscripts) precedes a final consonant. There is no occurrence of the drag, i.e. d in the combinations

In principle all the vowels, viz.

occur impartially after all consonants, except that (a) after the labials p, ph, b, m, and after k, kh, g, n, we seem always to have gi, never i, after m sometimes (mge) ge for e; (b) cu, nu, ge, ge, ge, accidentally (since ge and ge) ge for ge; (c) ge, ge, ge, also are wanting, which, in view of the rarity, and probable foreign origin, of the ge and ge, seems to have no significance: once or twice ge is written in place of ge.

All the vowels occur as finals, in which position they very frequently have a prolonged or drawling pronunciation, indicated by writings of the type aka, iki, &c., concerning which see supra, pp. 123-4. Once the lengthened pronunciation occurs in the interior of a word, rgyokon = rgyon (l. 336); and this fact may be not entirely negligible, since a contemporary Tibetan manuscript from the same region has once byokos in place of byos while another has so-ko for so; but, on the other hand, the rgyokon, for rgyon, is in a context which contains what is evidently the same verb in the forms rgyo and rgyoko.

Apparent diphthongs are classified and discussed in the abovecited article (pp. 201-6), where it is shown that eḥu and oḥu are real and somewhat frequent.² The case of aḥi (rtaḥi, ḥpaḥi, paḥi), uḥi (ḥruḥi ḥphuḥi, ḥpuḥi, ḥmuḥi), oḥi (ḥkoḥi), and perhaps also those of eḥi (frequent), require further consideration with regard

¹ See pp. 182-3, 185, 201.

¹ See infra, pp. 368-9.

to Syntax (pp. 176-7, 190-1). There is no real example of a diphthong in a word ending in a consonant.

Manifestly the above-noted morphological features place the Nam language upon the general level of the written, i.e. the old, Tibetan, and separate it definitely from the Hsi-hsia and from the modern Tibeto-Burman dialects of the Tibeto-Chinese border.

In the script there are numerous apparent disyllables, ending in o, hi, na, ni, ra, and occurring for the most part at the end of sentences. The cases belong evidently to the morphology of the sentence, and will be considered under that head. Numerous instances of -r appended to forms ending in vowels or h, e.g. hrar/hrah, rhor/rho, are likewise evidently syntactical.

B. MORPHOLOGY OF THE SENTENCE

That normally the verb is the last word in the sentence, as in Tibetan, is proved by the fact that most of the words with final s are found only at the end of a sentence or—what is usually equivalent—of a line or of both, and some of the residue also are restricted to an equivalent position. A full list will be given in connexion with the verb (infra, pp. 197–8), but, in order to carry the conviction with us, we may here note one or two cases where we have also in the text a corresponding s-less form:

hldyan-hjo-hkromni, 389, v. hldyan-hyu-hjo-cig-dze-htor-gehkroms, 387 hrno-htohu-re-hgyan ||, 7, v. smyi-nu-hgyans, 241 hlab-ma(me)-hni, 67, v. hlab-me-hnis ||, 70 ldyo-stor-hthu-re, 140, v. hjim-ta-hthusni, 156 stor-ta-hthogni, 149, v. stor-ta-hthogs ||, 145 thor-hbron-tshor-na, 220, v. htor-hbron-htsors, 219, hldagnag-htshors, 130 śes-hśi-brehe, 44, v. kehu-prom-hbres, 176 hkohu-hprom, 169, v. htor-htas-hproms, 121-2.

These s-forms can be nothing else than s-Preterites, such as are common in Tibetan.

The words found at the ends of sentences or lines are in general, therefore, presumably verbs. But naturally there may sometimes be non-verbal predicates, e.g. Adjectives or Substantives, with omission, as in Latin and other languages, of the verb 'be'; and, furthermore, since the text is a verse composition, there may be inversions due to poetic style. Thus in

stor-mon-hdzoń, 139

we already know that mon-hdzon means 'Mon-fort (or castle)', and stor is a rather commonly occurring verb, certainly equivalent to Tibetan stor 'stray', 'be lost', and the sense is

'was lost the Mon-castle'.

It was to be expected that an auxiliary should follow the verb to which it belongs; and this is to be seen in

hno-hkhob-hprom, 322 'face-cover-do', hno-stor-hprom ||, 128, 'friends-scatter-do', stor-rno, 141, 'scatter-can'.

In some of the above examples we see after the verb the syllables ni, na. These are Particles, the use of which will be considered infra.

That the subject should come first is, in view of the shortness of many of the sentences, an obvious consequence; and we have had it exemplified in gtsan-myi-hrgan (l. 160), 'the corn does not mature', and other sentences. Since we know further that śid means 'high', it appears from

háid-hrihi-hthor-dze, 62

where hrihi must be = Tibetan ri 'mountain', that the Adjective may precede the Substantive: from hldi-rgyed-hrah, 'this place of division', it appears both that a Pronoun and that a qualifying word—Noun of Action and so forth—may precede the substantive to which it belongs. But in

wam-háid-dze, 11

since dze is a very common particle, we have the hid following wam, and in the frequent hrah-hldi, 'this place' (at the beginning of verses in ll. 225, &c.) and in the antithetical line (ll. 132-3)

hbri-hldi-hthan-re-hre-hldi-hyah

the Pronoun evidently follows its Noun. In ll. 57-60 there is a succession of verses beginning

-hee-rgye-dze

preceded by a varying monosyllable (a Noun). Since dze is familiar, hee-rgye must be an attribute, and it can hardly be anything but an equivalent of Tibetan dbye-che, 'extent-great', 'spacious', which in a contemporary text from north-eastern Tibet we find with a rather similar reiteration applied to certain mountain

regions. Here we see a composite attribute, 'great (hce)-extent' constructed on the lines of the Sanskrit Bahu-vrihis and following its Substantive. We may accordingly state that Pronouns and Adjectives may, as in Tibetan, Latin, &c., and perhaps with analogous variation of emphasis, either precede or follow their Substantive. That a simple Substantive in an attributive (Genitive) relation could follow the governing word is highly improbable and nowhere apparent. The contrary order is indicated by the above-noted phrase rgyed-hrah and many others, such as g-ri-hruhu (l. 21), 'mountain-horn' (peak), hrdzo-hgyud, 'mdzorace', Mon-rdzon, 'Mon-castle'. Many other Case relations are similarly expressed merely by prefixing the subordinate term, e.g. hnah-hchos (l. 159), 'spring-born'. An 'Accusative' of the Direct Object is not much required in Tibeto-Burman and other languages, which prefer a Passive form of expression and in which the verb is a sort of noun.1 But it can be clearly recognized as preceding the verb in:

su-me-hmehi, 114, 'Who kindles a fire?' hpu-ge-me-hmuhi, 183, 'The sons (?) cool the fire'

and derivatively in numerous compounds, such as:

rgyed-hdre, 87, 'division-inducing', hwam-wehi, 196, 'mansion-making',

and the same or other cases in:

gse-hlad, 240 &c., 'requital of injury' rñe-hlad, 231, 'requital of wrong' hkhab-hgro, 233, &c., 'home-going'.

So far we have not elicited anything concerning expressions of circumstance, time, place, condition, and reason, for which some provision must have been made in the structure of the sentence. And this gives prominence to the fact that in the verse of seven syllables the four syllables preceding the caesura constitute a separate section of the meaning of the sentence. If we take the following verses:

śi-hchos-re-ge-hpu-myi-ldin ||, 160 'Winter-born, a bird does not fly' hkhu-tsa-śid-dze-hpha-hnur- hnur ||,60 'When the uncle-people are high, the father groans'

¹ Thus hio-khob-prom (l. 322), hio-hdan-prom (l. 258) may be rendered 'made a face-hiding', 'made a face-rest'.

rgam-ḥgaḥ-ḥkaṅ-ḥyaṅ-ḥrag-ma-ḥbog ||, 256

'Though the deep places were filled, the dykes were not fouled'

hjo-me-hdub-re-hla(b)-me-hñis ||, 70

'When the hjo-fire sinks, the hlab-fire shines out'

than-rdzo-hkyud-na-hbron-hdru-hjar, 220

'In the mdzo-race of the than-country the yak [is caught in the toils]'

we see that the last three syllables contain a complete proposition, while the first four introduce some circumstance of place or time or condition or specification. What gives importance to this observation is the fact that the monosyllables which occupy the fourth place in these verses, namely ge, dze, hyań, re, na, occur with enormous frequency in the text, in that position. In the verses of eight and eleven syllables the case is similar, as is natural, since the former are the original of which the seven-syllable verse is a catalectic form and the latter have merely an additional clause of four syllables: an exception is noted infra, p. 188. In twelve-syllable verses we have three clauses of four syllables each: the eleven-syllable verse consists of 4+4+3. The nine-syllable verse has a different rhythm, and the Particles are apt to occur in the fifth place: examples on pp. 127-8.

These facts suffice to demonstrate a general or formal character in the four words and indicate that the groups ending with them are of the nature of subordinate clauses, such as in Tibetan are found ending in cin, te (de, ste), yan, na, nas, la, las, and constituting Gerund-expressions. This is, doubtless, why, like the Gerund-clauses in the simple sentences of Tibetan, they occupy the first place, preceding the main sentence or at least the verb. The value and etymology of these several Particles, which we see to be in part identical with those of the Tibetan, will be considered infra. The clauses, for which we may give the general formula 'A being B', can be used to express not only attendant circumstances or conditions, but also mere note of time and place or other particulars: for example, 'on a dark night' may be expressed by 'the night being dark', and 'vengeance upon the stupid mdzo' by 'the mdzo being stupid, vengeance'.

Here we must take note of a matter, which, if unobserved, would be a permanent obstacle to the interpretation of the text and the etymology of the language: it is as follows:—There are in the text many verses where in the caesura position a syllable is missing. The cases, to which attention is called in the critical notes, occur as follows:

(a) Cases where the third syllable ends in r:

Lines 7, 20 42, 43 (?), 48, 49, 65, 86–7, 99, 128, 130, 132, 143, 153, 163, 164, 166, 169, 171, 173 (2), 174, 183, 184, 186–7 (?), 188–9 (?), 190, 196, 197, 209, 216–17 (?), 219, 224, 225, 226, 227, 228, 229, 237, 242–3, 243, 245, 246, 248, 254, 257–8, 285, 287, 289, 290, 292–3, 293, 296, 301, 303, 310–11, 312 (2), 315, 315–16, 317, 318, 319, 322, 326, 328, 331, 333–4, 337, 339, 339–40 (2), 341, 352, 353, 354–5, 358, 359, 362 (?), 365 (2), 366 (2), 392 (?).

(b) Other cases:

Lines 12, 14, 153, 193, 311-12, 319 (2).

The group (b) may be explained by a simple citation of one of the cases, ll. 193-4:

hnah-htsu-rpag-re-hnah-mo-hgam || hnah-mo-hrpag-[re]-gso-nad-hgam gso-nad-rpag-re-hkah-hgan-hjor.

No one would question that the parallelism in the three lines demands the insertion of re in the second of them. Quite similar are the cases in ll. 12 (insert ge or dze) and 14 (insert ge). The case of ll. 153-4 is slightly different, but has the advantage of illustrating also the group (a). We read:

myi-re-hti-ni-myi-[re]-hśi || myi-rgye-myer(= mye-re)-hchos-hyo-hjo hti-rgye-mye-dze-hgye-hkrom-hkrom ||

In the first verse we are perhaps dealing with a different re =Tibetan re, 'each', 'a single', and the meaning may perhaps be:

'if each man singly stop, each man dies',

so that the bracketed re would be an appropriate insertion. In the second verse an alteration of myer to mye-re gives a required parallelism to the third, and also affords the valuable information that mye-re has approximately the same sense as mye-dze. Now in group (a) there are three other instances of myer in the same situation (ll. 365-6). They must be cured in the same way; and it follows that the word myer, since it does not otherwise occur, does not exist. Of a different kind, but like effect, is the evidence when

¹ Similarly, in 1, 136 we have g-yar-re (written) in antithesis to g-yah-dze.

we have the same phrase or verse recurring with the postulated modification, e.g.

rta-hgam-hphar-[re], 99 = rta-hgam-hphar-re, 110.

These considerations enable us to dismiss from the vocabulary a number of syllables with final r, many or most of which actually occur elsewhere without the r.

The number of these (a) instances is perhaps less imposing in relation to the whole text than it seems; for a line of the manuscript will generally contain nearly 2 lines of verse. Nevertheless, such a frequency of a particular error demands some explanation. The error cannot be of a visual character, a miswriting by the copyist, more especially as it would not have so often escaped correction by the reviser. It follows, therefore, that from some points of view the difference between e.g. myer and mye-re was negligible. We have seen that a clause ending in re might sometimes be equivalent to a Locative case: hence, if on the analogy of Tibetan we assume a Nam Locative in -r. that may in a fair number of instances account for the indifference. But we require a disyllable. Remembering that the Tibetan -r Locative has also the forms ru (influenced by -su?) and ra and is probably nothing other than the ancient word ra, ro, 'place', it might be thought that the Nam Locative termination was really not -r but -ra. Mye-ra would more easily than mye-re be read as myer.1 Something could be urged in favour of this; and no doubt the -r-Locative is very old. But we could not assume that a Locative sense would always be appropriate; and we may prefer to connect the (myer, &c., written in place of mye-re &c.) phenomenon with a proximate or ultimate oral transmission of the text and bring into the question the 'rapid pronunciation', which Prejevalsky (op. cit. ii, p. 112) noticed in the modern Tibetan ('Tangut') of the Koko-nor region. When there came to be a recopying from a manuscript, the dictator, scribe, and reviser might all alike be indifferent to the metre.

It now remains to give particulars of the sentence-ending Particles which sometimes lend an appearance of disyllabism to the last monosyllable in a sentence:

(a) -o, which occurs after a consonant in: ldyoňo, 318 (a doubtful reading)

On the cases where, on the contrary, this ra after a consonant is actually treated as non-syllabic see infra, p. 178.

after a vowel in:

hkruho, 316

and frequently perhaps in forms with o such as:

lpyoho, 22, hyoho, 119, htoho, 140, 235, &c.

which last group is, however, dubious, since such forms occur in non-final positions, as equivalents of forms with o only, as hyo and hto.

- (b) hi, which follows a consonant in:
 - (1) forms written as one word, viz.

hdzomhi, 134, hňahghi ||, 137, hkaňhi ||, 164, hpyedhi, 208, modhi, 212, hrdaghi ||, 214, hlamhi, 224, 225, 226, 227, 228, 229, htroňhi, 224, 243, stomhi, 255, hwadhi ||, 301, hlobhi, 378, hrlomhi |: |, 385,

(2) forms written as two words, viz. hthul-hi, 67, hlad-hi, 230, 237.

In both (1) and (2) the hi seems to be everywhere extra-metrical, though we may allow a doubt in the case of stomhi and hlobhi.

After a vowel there are numerous cases of -ihi, which may be left out of the question for the reason noted in regard to -oho; but parallelism of adjacent verses sometimes indicates the Suffixal character of the hi. With -ehi also there are numerous instances:

hkehi ||, 15, 41, 202, hrwehi ||, 22, 113, 198, mehi ||, 25, 115, 311, 312, 313, rhehi, 86, hmehi, 114, 186, hdehi ||, 167, g-wehi ||, 199, 263, hrehi ||, 204-5, hgyehi ||, 209, hkhehi ||, 212, g-yehi ||, 271, hdzehi, 338, 339, htsehi, 342, hpehi, 386, 387.

Here there is no question of extra-metric value of the hi, since all words ending in -ehi are monosyllabic. In some cases there may be doubt on the ground that alternate forms -e and -ehi are found also in non-final positions: of this mehi and hdehi (each of them, no doubt, a homonym) are examples. But most of the words occur only as finals and probably, therefore, contains sentence-ending hi.

With uhi we have:

hmuhi, 183, hphuhi, 276, hpuhi ||, 282, hdzuhi ||, 345, 346, of which hphuhi and hpuhi occur also as non-finals (monosyllabic), the latter, however, last (with ge and re) in its clause (ll. 274, 329),

and so virtually final: similarly hruhi, 167. Probably all the words contain u+hi, and the hi will then be extra-metrical.

ohi is seen in hkhad-htohi (l. 324, extra-metrical hi), hkhohi || (l. 218, perhaps in a 12-syllable verse and with o+extra-metrical hi).¹

ahi occurs only in

hkahi, 239, hpahhi, 384,

where, if = hka + hi, the hi is extra-metrical; but rtahi (l. 174, but hrtah, l. 360), pahi (l. 262) and hpahi (l. 211) are found as non-final monosyllables.

What is the difference between the -o, which we see to have been rare, and the hi, unknown in Tibetan, which was common? Since in the passage, Il. 223-30, which is of an emotional character, a cry for vengeance, the hi ends every line of verse, it seems probable that, in contrast to the -o, which was a Particle of statement, hi was a Particle of emphasis or exclamation and suitable, therefore, for oratory and poetry. On non-final -hi see infra, pp. 191-2.

(c) ni is in Tibetan familiar as a Particle marking a discrimination of one topic from another: like the English 'as for', 'as to', it is therefore essentially antithetic, and so may introduce either the first or the last (a supplementary) member of a group of topics, or each one of them. In the old popular Tibetan it was very common, e.g. in

Sñag-na-ni-myi-slebs hbros-na-ni-myi-thar rgal-na-ni-myi-thub 'Pursuing, cannot overtake; Fleeing, cannot get away; Contending, cannot overcome'

and

kha-hod-de-ni-dmar so-ho-rin-ni-dgar 'As to his mouth-glear

'As to his mouth-gleam, red;

'As to his teeth, wide-apart'.

A similar meaning of the Nam ni as final is apparent in the series of sentences in ll. 149-56 ending in

hthogni (2), 149, hton[n]i, 150, 152, hkarni ||, 151, hgyanni, 153, hthusni, 156

¹ -ohi non-final in the sentence is monosyllabic in hkohi (l. 170), like hkohu in ll. 171, 172, 173, 174, &c.

and internally in 1. 153:

myi-re-hti-ni-myi-[re]-hśi ||.

The other occurrences, viz.

kyanni, 192, rgyen[n]i, 198, hkon[n]i || $^{\circ \circ}_{\circ \circ}$ ||, 249, hbogni, 283 can be seen to have the same character.

Where found at the end of Nam verse, this ni is always extrametrical.

(d) ra, although it may be merely the word ra, 'place', should be mentioned here, because in ll. 329-31:

htor-hpuhu-hbos-dze-hrgyo-hśeg-gśegra-ge-rgyo-hto-stiń || rta-hsah-g-yer-dze-rbyo-gśeg-gśe[g]r[a]-ge-rgyo-hto-stiń

the first of the two eleven-syllable verses presents gśegra as one written word and with the value of a monosyllable; a circumstance which accounts for the writing gśer for gśegra in the second verse. In 1. 270 also:

hwah-hldanra-htsanra-na-hwa-rgya-hrko-hrkabs we can, by reckoning hldanra and htsanra as monosyllables and omitting the second hwah (hwa), which is absent in the parallel 1. 272, arrive at a normal verse of seven syllables, as in the surrounding passage, or, retaining the hwa, a verse of eight syllables. This leaves us with 1. 278:

rta-ḥwa-ḥldaṅra-ḥldaḥ-ḥtag-ḥtos and 1, 302:

hmań-hrihi-hphań-dze-dgah-hldońra-hnah-na

where, again, hldonra is a monosyllable. On ra(re)-hnah see infra, p. 239. The facts appear to show that the writing of the ra as conjoined with the preceding monosyllable is not accidental, but indicates the pronunciations:

gśegr, hldanr, htsanr, hldonr

without a final vowel: and this may explain in 1.375 the writing hror for what must be hron-re or hronra. Also, it cannot be an accident that all the cases, except gsegr, involve a final \dot{n} and that even as regards gsegr we can point to confusion of final g and \dot{n} in contemporary Tibetan of north-eastern Tibet, so that gser in 1.331 may represent not gsegr, but gsenr.

We can hardly fail to connect this non-syllabic ra with the numerous class of contrary cases, discussed above, in which a

¹ In l. 133 hthanra, final, seems to be treated as a monosyllable.

written monosyllable ending in a possibly Locative r has dissyllable value.

- (e) na: As has been mentioned, a syllable na, having obviously a syntactical value, occurs frequently in the caesura position in the verse. At end of sentences we find a na occurring in at least three ways, namely:
- (i) na joined to the preceding monosyllable in ll. 77, 182 (planna and hdubna), 183, 221 (hthanna), 225, 231, 236, 237, 238, 244, 245, 246, 248, 253, 257, 258, 262, 280 (htona), 328, 329, 353, 354, 369
- (ii) na separated from the preceding syllable by interpunctuation in ll. 113, 114, 174 (hto-na and hpor-na), 176–7 (glan-na), 177, 220, 221, 241, 243, 252, 294, 296, 302, 304, 308–9 (hpan-na) 359. That there is no difference between the cases (a) and (b) is evident from fluctuations such as

hto-na, 174, 294, = htona, 280 hgyan-na, 296 = hgyanna, 77 ma-ma-hna, 245 = mah-mahna, 238 = ma-mahna, 245, 246 = ma-hman(a), 247

but also quite as definitely from the fact that in all cases where the evidence of metre is available, and this is the great majority, the na, regardless of the difference in the writing, is extra-metrical. In ma-ma-hna, &c., indeed, the na is probably not the Particle, but merely the -n of the root man; see infra, p. 230.

There is, however, also a third class of cases, namely

(iii) na marked off from the preceding sentence by the punctuation, including one case where it is also marked off from the following sentence:

... hkhehe || na || hnor ..., 314.

Not to lay too much stress upon this instance, we may refer to 1, 178:

|| na-hldyan-hyan-hyo-na-ldyan-hkah-rwan.

Here the first na spoils the location of the caesura (after the second na) and brings to the seven-syllable verse an eighth syllable: more than this, it conflicts with two other verses, which commence with the phrase hldyan-hyan-hyo-na (l. 179) and hldyan-hyahn-hyo-don (l. 367) respectively. From this it appears that the na properly belongs neither to the preceding nor to the following verse, but serves as a link between them. This is presumably the same

function that it discharges in the interior of a sentence, when, in the caesura position, it joins the first three syllables of a sevensyllable verse to the last three. Accordingly the passage (ll. 124-7):

htor-hrta-rme-ge-hldan-kran-hkun ||

hldan-hkran-hsad-na-hldan-hkran-hsah

(with four further verses beginning with hldan-(h)kran) can be properly understood only if the connecting na is placed as here.

A fourth employment of na is:

(iv) na at the end of a paragraph or chapter,

ll. 222 | : |, 253 || ° || (probably also l. 182, planna |).

This usage, marking a conclusion, may well seem to conflict with the idea of connexion, which is the characteristic of the other usage.

When we take into consideration the Tibetan na, all difficulty vanishes. This na, in addition to its employment as a Locative suffix, is used

- (a) at the end of subordinate clauses expressing circumstances, conditions, &c.;
- (b) connecting sentences, and especially when the former of two is a verse or other piece forming a complete whole;
- (c) at the end of paragraphs, statements, and whole documents, such as letters.

Moreover, this na is often, in the contemporary Tibetan manuscripts from north-eastern Tibet, placed at the beginning of the second sentence, separated by punctuation from the first. As an example with a prior verse we may quote:

rta-yul-hbrog-yin-kyań-bden g-yag-yul-byań-yin-kyań-bden |

na | da-de-riń-sań-lta-na | rta-dań-g-yag-gñis-śań-myi-hthabho

'Horse-country is the wilds—'tis true!

Yak-country is the north-plain—'tis true! whereas this is so (na), now, looking to to-day and to-morrow, horse and yak should not strive as foes'.

Here the first na, marked off from both sentences and not included in the metre of what precedes, has the same meaning ('attendant circumstance' or 'condition') as the second, which in the prose passage is attached to its (subordinate) clause. An example of the na attached to the following sentence only is: sku-glud-du-bor |:| na-hbrog-srin . . . htshalde-mchis

'On (na) his casting away . . . as his body's scapegoat, the fiend of the waste came accepting it.'

It may be added that these usages are not confined to cases with na, but are found also with the other subordinating Particles, nas, $ci\hat{n}$, ste, pas, &c. The most convenient method of translation in such cases is to round off the prior sentence as a whole, and then commence a new one with 'So'. On $do\hat{n}$ (Tib. $da\hat{n}$) see Vocabulary.

The use of the na at the end of paragraphs, &c., now becomes intelligible. It implies vaguely that there is something still to come; and, when we find it in Tibetan at the end of a letter, we can understand it as analogous to English letter-endings such as 'Hoping you are well', when no main verb follows, the implied main statement being a general consent to further acquaintance or correspondence.

It is tempting to conceive of this na, local and conditional, as a form of the common word gnah, 'place', which in the Nam occurs both in this form and also as na and hnah. But an original pronominal sense, 'that', 'there', might account even better for the Tibetan na-re, meaning, no doubt, 'so it is (re)' and used, like Sanskrit iti, after quotations and also in the sense of 'so say (or said)'.

C. PARTS OF SPEECH

I (a). Nouns, Suffixes, Reduplication

NATURALLY there are in the Nam language many Substantives, such as pha, 'father', rta, 'horse', pu, 'bird', ri, 'mountain', phag, 'hog', lam, 'road', sku, 'body', no, 'face', mye, mehi, 'eye', ron, 'gorge', hla, 'moon', me, 'fire', smyi, 'man', na, 'spring', si, 'winter', which show no trace of a deverbal origin. And there are others, such as hbron, 'yak', gnah, 'place', hkhab, 'house', hdzon, 'fort', which, although originally they may in fact have been derived from Verbs or Adjectives, are, at any rate, not obviously or certainly so. But the Tibeto-Burman Verb is, as is well known, properly a noun of action, state, or occurrence, i.e. a name of a motion, state, &c., regarded as a thing; so that every verb-root can function as a Substantive. For use as a Substantive it requires no suffix; and, if it has one, e.g. rgyed-ma, 'division', the suffix is usually, in a compound, dropped, as in rgyed-hrah, 'place of

division'. But naturally there is some demand for Suffixes, in order to convey particular nuances of meaning.

The most general and widespread Tibetan Suffix, pa, ba, does not seem to be recognizable in Nam, the only possible candidate being the wa in gsom-wa, rgon-wa, hwi-wa, of which expressions we have still (infra, pp. 336 sqq.) to determine the meaning. The Suffix, non-existent in Hsi-fan, is all the more unlikely to be found, inasmuch as its sphere is, at least in part, preoccupied by ta. The 'Feminine' form ma exists, as we have seen, in rgyed-ma, which is also guaranteed by some other forms in the Berlin fragment, morma, yan-ma, bri-ma, bra-ma, rme-ma, &c., in which it seems certain that the ma is not the negative ma: this ma seems to give simply the sense of an Action-noun and is never a really 'Feminine' suffix.

The po and mo of the Tibetan are likewise, apparently, wanting. For, though we find the expressions, rbyo-po, 'rbyo-man' (l. 181), and hnah-mo, 'home-woman' (l. 193), it seems that they are compounds, in which po and mo retain their full meaning: cf. what Dr. Laufer wrote¹ concerning the Tibetan bisan-po (sometimes -pho, 'man').

Whether there was a Suffix ka, ga remains to be determined. Such a suffix, rare in ordinary Tibetan, was certainly used in the Tibetan of the north-east.

Ta is found copiously added to verb-roots and giving rise to nouns of action, such as glo-ta, 'intention', 'thought', skye-ta, 'life', chos-ta, 'beginning', hlab-ta, 'speaking', g-ri-ta, 'payment'. It is used of agents in l. 336;

klu-htah-rgyohon-re-hses-ta-hrgyon

'if the blind perform rgyo, the knowing ones perform rgyo' where klu and hées are rather Adjectives than Verbs; and there are other like cases. We sometimes (II. 7 hyed-ge-ta, 371, 372 hlde-ge-htah) find the Particle ge inserted between the Suffix and its word.

The sta in:

hno-sta, 85, rne-sta, 86, hbrad-sta, 306, hman-sta, 311, hri (g-ri, g-rihi)-sta, 311-12, slo-stah, 99

¹ T'oung-pao, Sér. 2, vol. xv (1914), pp. 93, 102-3.

But of chad-ka, 'fine' or 'confiscation', in the MS. Chronicle (now edited by M. Jacques Bacot, see pp. 25 (89), 57 (II. 31-2)) lton-ka (and 'ga) 'groove', 'notch', 'depression', dbyar-ka, sos-ka, 'summer', than-ka, 'plain', thad-ka, 'direction', &c. These, however, are substantives, and often they have by-forms with -kha and -ga, and may be compounds, formed with kha as second member.

³ Supra, pp. 32, n. 1, 60.

will be a form of ta, to be expected on the analogy of to/sto, te/ste in Nam and Tibetan: and hno-sta and rne-sta seem to denote persons. On the s- see infra (p. 185, n.) and on sta = 'there' (p. 201). On rwye-htah, l. 91, and on hwa-ste-htah, ll. 71-2, with ste+ta see p. 187.

Since the expected da is not found in this use, we naturally ask whether among the occurrences of lda, ldah, hlda, hldah, there may be any of like character. There are numerous instances of hlda/hldah as a Suffix, viz.:

hran-hldah (hlda)-hnam-ge, 5, 6, 8, 37 hrah-ldah-ge, 43 hman-hldah, 33 rkah-lda, 84 hkah-hldah, 137 rke-hldah, 155 hban-hldah, 170 hsah-hldah, 164 g-yog-hldah, 200 hso-hldah, 201 śor-hlda, 203 gse-hlda, 240 hrde-hldah, 301 rpehi-hldah, 286 rne(hrne)-hldah, 303, 310 hpo-hldah, 358 hdzah-hldah, 380, 382, 383.

Several of the words preceding the hldah, e.g.

hran (= Tib. ran, 'self'), hrah ('place'), hsah, 'earth' are certainly not Verbs, so that in those instances the Suffix must have a value different from that of the ta with Verbs and similar to that of ta with Adjectives. Some of the other words are provisionally (but see infra) not sufficiently determined in meaning to allow a certain decision. But as regards gse-hlda, in which gse is known as equivalent to Tibetan gtse 'to injure', we can take note of the verse

rñe-hlad-rpag-re-gse-hlda-hlad-hlambi, 239-40 which is immediately followed by gse-hlad, recurring again twice in 1. 242. Gse-hlad means 'requital of injury', rñe-hlad probably 'requital of wrong': and gse-hlad, since it cannot differ much from gse-hlad, ought to mean 'requital of injuring or injurers'.

omitted.

The agential sense ('injurers') will probably be found to fit the case of gse-hlda and most of the other instances.

to, hto, htoho occur most commonly as Verb-suffix or Verb at the end of a sentence; we have:

hái-hrog-hpah-to, 17
stor-htoho ||, 140
bprom-hto, 168, 171 (hphrom), 172 (hphrom), 174 (prom),
359 (hprom-htoho), 360 (to)
re-hto ||, 169, 382
rman-dze-htoho, 235
hnu-hto ||, 242
hyah-hto, 294, 315 (htoho)
hman-hto ||, 310
rgo-htoho, 314-15
hrbom-htoho ||, 317
hkhad-htohi, 324

(Uncertain on account of confused text, g-yo-hpud-hto, 28). Not really different are the cases where the sentence is subordinate and therefore followed by a Particle:

gśań-re-ḥtad-to-dze, 30 hrgom-hkhrur¹-ḥto-na, 169 hldog-g-yah-to-dze, 317

dguhu-mu-hto(to)-re, 236, 244: dgu-mu-hto[-]r[e], 225, 245. The re in the last group of cases is one of the Particles which most commonly occupy the caesura position. As we shall see infra, it is really a Verb, meaning 'be' (in these cases a Gerund, 'being'), for which reason it may itself admit the hto formation re-hto, as in Il. 169, 382, noted above. The cases with hto-re show, however, that the-hto-forms are not really finite Verbs, but are predicative Participles or Adjectives with the Verb 'be'

After the hto-form may come an 'auxiliary' Verb or expression: the instances are:

hrgu-hto-hrun (= Tibetan ruń, 'ought', 'must'), 30, 32 stor-to-hrun, 79–80, 138 hdzohu-hto-hrun, 138 htshu-to-hphan, 215 rgyo-hto-stiń, 330, 331, 335, 336 (rgyoho) hko-hto-swad, 390

¹ For hkhru-re.

and in a subordinate sentence or phrase:

stor-hto-hruhi-ge, 167

The other cases are:

klu-hto-hkyim, 37

hdam-to-hbu-hpor(hphor?), 68

stor-hto-rta-yan-stor-to-hrun | ° |, 79

hcihi-htoho-ge-hnan ||, 350.

Here klu-hto, hdam-to, hcihi-htoho, clearly function as Substantives, 'the blind', 'the bound', &c.; and stor-hto = stor-hto- &c., 'that having fled'.

The -sto which we naturally expect is to be seen in

hswar-hldu-sto-dze, 28

hde-hyim-sto-rgyag, 29

hňo-sto-ge-rdo-re, 84 hňo-sto-ge-háag-dze, 85

hbe-hbah-hnah-sto, 235

tha-hnu-hrgyan-sto-smyi-hnu-hto, 242

hkyań-hldoń-hgyań-sto, 292.

In two cases sto comes at the end of a sentence, and the phrase is therefore, no doubt, a Verb:

hrgu-hrgehi-sto ||, 58 hehir-htsah-sto, 233;

and in one case:

sto-the-the-re, 336

it comes at the beginning of a sentence and is, doubtless, a quite different word.

It is fairly evident that sto is equivalent to to¹ and both this and the Adjectival-Participial character of the to and sto are proved by the occurrence in contemporary Tibetan name-titles from north-eastern Tibet, such as:²

Btsan-to-re, 'The powerful'

Snan-to-re, 'The distinguished'

Tshan-to-re

Sgra-ya-sto, = Dgra-yas-to, 'Having foes without limit'

--- -rgya-sto

² Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 16.

¹ Cf. the doublets te/ste, ta/sta, and Tibetan te/ste. From observation of the occurrence, both in Tibetan and in Nam, it appears that ste and sto derive their s from the preceding (Preterite) verb-form: thus hldu-sto, hyim-sto, hrychi-sto are merely scriptural substitutes for hldus-to, hyims-to, hrychis-to.

where, furthermore, we find also the re, which we have seen in dgu-mu-to-re, &c.

In general therefore we see that the forms in -to, -sto, can act as predicates and can then be followed by the word re, 'be'. This means that they are Adjectives and Participles; and when we find them as subjects, as in:

hcihi-htoho-ge-hnan ||, 350 hno-sto-ge-rdo-re, 84

they are Adjectives used as subjects: in fact, hho-sto probably means 'friends' or 'allies', i.e. hhos-to, 'those on one's side (hos), rather than hho-sto, 'those who lend countenance (ho, cf. Tib. ho-tshab, a 'proxy', and so forth)'.

The forms do and ldo may also be expected. The former may be

seen in:

ldań-pyer-hgag-re-htsah-hyah-hdo ||, 65 hko-se-hgro-re-htsa-hyah-hdo ||, 67 rta-hso-hnah-yań-gñi-hrdzum-doho ||, 80 ldyań-glab-hdo ||, 180

of which the first perhaps means:

'those (htsah) who are prevented (hgag) from co-operating (ldan-pyer) become rivals or enemies (hyah = Tib. ya)'.

Somewhat different perhaps are:

gśań-sñań-do-na . . ., 86 htsog-hram-do-na . . .

where we may suspect the meaning of an abstract 'in . . . friendship', 'in comradeship', and:

htor-hdo-hchun, 185,

which seems clearly to mean 'in greatness small'. The remaining instance:

hchi-hdo-dyan, 183, 353,

may conceivably belong to either group. Probably, however, it means 'started to depart' and so belongs to the group hrgu-hto-hrun, &c.

A corresponding ldo we may surely recognize in:

dgu-hldo-htor-dze, 74, 77, 78 (°ge), 114 (°ge), 139 (°ldo, °ge), 309 (°ge) rne-hpo-hldo-ge, 177 mehi-hgab-hldo-ge, 155

klu-hldo-sme-re, 342 hnu-hldo-hldyoho ||, 355 śeg-sme-hldo, 375 hbri-slod-hldo-dze, 381

in several of which, e.g. dgu-hldo, 'hotness', klu-hldo, 'blindness', we seem to find the abstract sense: whereas in others, e.g.

mehi-hgab-hldo-ge = 'having eyes hidden'

the Adjectival-Participial value may appear.

Like re, 'be', this Participial or Verbal ta, to, survives in eastern and north-eastern Tibet down to the present time. Rockhill tells us (Journey through Mongolia and Tibet, p. 270) that:

"The language spoken in Jyade (in Eastern Tibet) presents numerous peculiarities I have not met with elsewhere. To note only one—they use the particles lé and ta . . . to indicate the present tense . . . Rig-ta, "I see it"; Rig-mé-ta, "I (or you) do not see it."

And in the Vicomte d'Ollone's Langues des peuples non-Chinois de la Chine, p. 224, we see the ta at work in a dialect (No. 41, Dzorgai) of the Go-lok peoples of the north:

Kan iu eu dzeta 'I have a horse' Kan iu nié dzeta 'I have two horses'.

In rwye-htah, 1. 91, htah, 'is', occurs, and in hwa-ste-htah, 11. 71-2,

it is added to the Participial form in ste.

A suffix tsa has been previously (JRAS. 1939, pp. 207, 216) seen in gpha-tsa, 'father-people', hkhu-tsa, 'uncle-people'; and this is doubtless also to be seen in Tibetan bu-tsa, 'child-people', 'children'. We are naturally inclined to see the same in

mor-tsah-khrom-re || hyan-tsa-heer ||, 388

since mor and hyan are frequently antithetical and the parallelism with gpha-tsa v. hkhu-tsa is obvious: hyan-tsa recurs in 1. 63. The same appears in htrog-htsa, 'enemies', 1. 146, g-wah(g-yah?)-htsa, 1. 152, hkhwi-htsa, 1. 259, hpan-tsa, 1. 283. There are two interesting points in connexion with this Suffix. The first is that it may follow compounds:

klu-hrto-htsa-ge, 24-5, 'blind stones' (?) hthan-le-tsa, 131, 220, 'the [beings of the] than fields' (?) mye-hrah-htsah, 342, 'look-outs' (?)

compounds with -re:

gsu-prom-hňo[-]r[e]-htsah-hpu-hdrom ||, 64-5 hstor-mon-hdzon-re-htsa, 64 and even the inserted Particle ge:

śes-rtsig-mon-ge-htshah, 379 tsig-mon-we-ge-htshah, 381 hdzah-hldah-hwehi-ge-htsah, 383.

This suits well with its being virtually a plural Suffix which can come after compounds and phrases. It is noticeable that the instances with re and ge all have the tsa, htsah, &c., as the fifth syllable in the verse, so that metrical convenience may have favoured the phraseology with re and ge.

We should expect to find such a tsa appearing sometimes in the form ca. But at present it does not seem possible to identify an instance in the Nam text. The Berlin fragment, which has one or two occurrences of tsa, viz.:

jig-mah-tsa-ge, 6 htham-gnam-tsa-ge, 18

not to mention possible examples, such as

me-tsa, 14,

has very likely the expected ca in

ljeb-ca-ri-ri, gmu-me-don-ca-ri-ri, 10-11.

In Tibetan the ca may be recognized in the cag (= ca-ge?, ef. yig = yi-ge) used to form the plural of Pronouns, such as na-cag, 'we', which use is extended to pronominal words, e.g. in bdag-cag, 'ourselves'; while an analogous or related form, cog, is still more widely employed, as in hbro-cog, 'runaways', yod-do-cog, 'all existent things', mthon-no-cog, 'all seen things'. It is intelligible that the convenient form ca, tsa may have penetrated into the Indian Prākrit of the Shan-shan kingdom, as was suggested in JRAS. 1939, pp. 207-8; cf. the Latin etc. in European languages.

The formative te/tehi/ste/stehi/lde/ldehi has already (p. 136) been discussed and equated to the Tibetan Gerund-forming te/ste/de. This te/de seems to be clearly apparent in the Berlin fragment:

bri-ma-zor-de . . ., 2 bra-ma-gar-de . . ., 2 rme-ma-do-de . . ., 4 śań-ma-de-de . . ., 5 rtoń-ma-de-de . . ., 5 kyo-ma-do-de . . ., 5 gce-yań-phań-de . . ., 6, &c. and with te after re:

klu-ne-sñañ-re-te, 11 klu-ne-sñañ-re-te, 13 mug-tse-khyig-re-te, 17 htham-tse-re-te, 17

and after other Verbs:

de-wa-yob-te, 16 gya-rba-tsag-te, 20.

In the present text we can recognize the idiom quite well, e.g. in pun-te-gsar-nar, 204 ('being massed together, new vigour') hphom-te-hdran, 147 ('being conquered, led') hsas-te-khyan, 116 hjo(hdzo?)-chi-te-re, 385

and with ste:

ldyan-hkah-rwan-ste, 178 gnah-gon-myag-ste, 179-80 hlab-ta-gbohu-ste-ge, 181-2 na-htsah-ste-dze, 33-4 hldyim-ste-hpuhi-ge, 274.

But, even putting aside

hwa-ste-htah, 72 hwa-ste-hge-dze, 73, 75

where we are not yet sure of ste as a suffix, we may apprehend a difference in the employment of te/ste, in the two manuscripts. This difference may be best expressed as a tendency in our manuscript for the te/ste to appear in the interior of a clause, instead of at the end, and as belonging to the Subject and not to the Predicate: that is to say, it serves to form a Participle-Adjective, instead of a Gerund. This is seen, for instance, in the above

hphom-te-hdran, 147

and in

hse-hte-hmun, 33 hldya-hkan-hte-hnor, 52 hsod-te-rmag-dze, 147

and it also appears from the fact that the phrases are sometimes followed by ge, which always belongs to the Subject, as in

hldyim-hste-hpuhi-ge, 274 hrne-hrdam-hte-he-ge, 322 hlab-ta-gbohu-ste-ge, 181-2 or by dze, which is normally a kind of preposition, e.g. in na-htsah-ste-dze, 33

hwa-ste-hge-dze, 73, 75.

This is the employment which we have seen in rgyed-hdre-hte-ge, 87, 24, 'the division-inducers',

and similar is the case of

htrog-hdre-hte-re, 326, 338, 'there being (re, or re = 'all'), enmity (? deceit?)-inducers'

so that finally we get the te attached to an Adjective:

trog-htor-hte-dze, 266, 'upon great enmity'

and such an Adjective may become the main Predicate, as in hla (lah)-hram-hte, 73, 76, 'the moon [is] pleasant'.

The interest of this development in the use of the te, ste is the fact that it is precisely the idiom which we have already (pp. 131, 136) traced in the personal names Lton-te-Mye-kru, Bžagste-Nar-hbyam; it emphasizes the connexion between the names and the Nam dialect.

There do not seem to be any more syllabic formatives apparent at first sight, excepting a Diminutive, hgu, on which see infra (p. 258) and Case-suffixes, which will be mentioned below. But this is clearly the place for considering the variant forms te and tehi, i de and i i de i which have been exhibited by the personal names. The i is evidently regarded by the Tibetan translators of the names as corresponding to their own Genitive- and Adjective-forming Suffix hi; for, where their hi would not be phonologically correct, they substitute their alternative gi, gyi: thus:

Byehu-rma-byehu-gi = bya-rma-byahi Yab-sten-rgan-gyi = Yab-nal-ldehi Tsen-hgi-Rba-ga.

This is good evidence for a Genitive-Adjective value in the Nam hi. Does it help to explain any of the variations between -e and -chi, such as we have exemplified supra (p. 124)?:

hrah-we-rtah = hrah-wehi-rta hbe-hbah = hbehi-hbah.

It might be, for instance, that hrah-we-rtah meant 'place-make-horse' as a compound, while hrah-wehi-rta meant 'place-making horse' with 'place-making' as an Adjective qualifying 'horse'; and similarly hbe-hbah might mean 'sheep-oppression' as a compound, while hbehi-hbah meant 'oppression of sheep', with hbehi

Occasionally elsewhere also, as in byehu-gi.

as a quasi-Genitive. And it would be convenient to discover in the Nam language a Genitive form. There are also cases where we apparently find these Gerund expressions with -de having the hi appendix when used apparently as Subjects. Thus in

hstor-hdehi-hphyid ||, 339, 341 (cf. ldan-hdehi-hpyid || ||, 343-4)

unless hde is there a different word ('good fortune'), it might be that hstor-hdehi means 'fugitives', while hstor-hde might mean 'fleeing'. But, if the language had had such a Genitive-Adjective suffix, we should have expected, though this and the analogous Tibetan texts are very terse and sparing in their use of Genitives otherwise indicated than by position, to find at any rate some instance of a Genitive suffix used after a word ending in a consonant; and of that we have not any clear example. Moreover, the cases with -ahi, uhi, ohi directly contradict the idea of a Genitive-Adjective suffix,1 and the impression received is rather that the hi is a Particle of emphasis, identical, in fact, with the sentenceending hi: the reason why we do not find it after consonants may be that in the interior of a sentence it would have added a syllable for which the verse had no place. It may very well have been used optionally in the interior of compounds, either to mark the separation of the parts or to emphasize one part, and for convenience, in cases like the above-mentioned hstor-hdehi, to mark off the phrase as a Subject. The objection to this is that the spelling mehi, where the probable meaning is 'eye', seems to be rather constant, while me, mye, prevails where 'fire' is probably meant; but possibly the hi may have been used in the language, without phonological origin, to make this very distinction. At the end of a sentence mehi can sometimes mean 'is not' (Tib. med).

It appears that before this enclitic hi a final a is usually converted into e. Hdzo-hdzehi, ll. 338, 339, htso-htsehi, l. 342, are clearly identical with each other and with hdzo-hdza, l. 262, °htsah, l. 29, °htseh(i), l. 364, htso-htsah, ll. 62, 73, 115: and the same change is to be seen in

hyah-hnehi-hnahd, 115-16 (Tib. ya-na, 'anguish', 'fright') hwi-hwehi-htsag, 173, 'rats (or mice) collect'

(cf. hwi-wa-rman, 201, 'rats (or mice) are the tomb')

so that in some occurrences of spehi and hpehi, e.g. ll. 211, 370, we

¹ Ldehi-swa-rāni, Il. 319, 320, from Ide, seems exactly parallel to rtahi-swa-hldir, 1. 174, from rta.

may question whether we have to do with spe, hpe, or with spa, hpa; see p. 282. The case of -a/-ehu (p. 368) seems analogous.

The possibility that -ehi is merely a lax representative of -ehe is suggested by the hrgehi-sto = hrges-to of p. 185, n. 1; it would then be parallel to -ohu = -oho (infra, p. 369). But against this we may note the occurrences of -ahi, -uhi, -ohi, and also of an -ehu similarly equivalent to -e (p. 368).

The only other morphological feature of Nam monosyllables is one found throughout the whole Tibeto-Burman area, namely reduplication. As concerns verbs a reference to this has, in regard to the Berlin fragment, already been made (*JRAS*, 1939, p. 198). In our text it is frequent, there being even sequences of verses such as

hbo-hkom-ldyań-dze-hldab-hde-hde || gñim-hti-hldyań-[dze]-hgye-hkrom-hkrom, 12-13.

These verb-repetitions are true reduplications, without the vocalic variation which is found in some of the languages, e.g. Tibetan. But the latter type also seems to appear, as in Tibetan, in expressions, such as

gdim-hdzam-hdzim-re, 100 hśań-plim-plam, 120.

These and others, e.g. hbo-hbon, ma-mahn, can function indistinguishably as Substantives, Adjectives (frequent in Hsi-fan, Lo-lo, Mo-so, etc.) and Verbs.

I (b). Declension

The apparent absence of any plural suffixes, such as the Tibetan rnams, tsho, dag, has already been noted (JRAS. 1939, p. 209): it is hardly likely that the hdag in the parallel phrases:

hyog-hprah-hdag-dze, 254 hkhwi-htsa-hyog-hdag-ci hsas-hdrah-hdag-chi, &c., ll. 259-61

is equivalent to the Tibetan dag: the hdag must, in fact, be interpreted otherwise. Probably the language was content with the tsa, properly more equivalent to '&c.', discussed on pp. 187-8.

The Genitive relation (or the direct relation between things) occurs, no doubt, in all its species (possession, part-whole, physical, psychological, legal, social, &c., connexion), being indicated merely by word-order, the Genitive word preceding. But the phrase is then indistinguishable, as in English, from a compound

word; and whether the connexion between the parts is then Genitival, Datival, Instrumental, Locative, depends simply upon the sense. Thus we have:

than-hrdzo-rgyud, 16, 220, 'than-mdzo-race' (2 Genitives) g-ri-hruhu, 21, 'mountain-horn (Peak)' (Genitive of whole) Mon-hdzon, 64, &c. 'Mon castle' (Genitive of description) hjo-me, 67, &c., 'hjo fire' (Genitive of material) hna-hlam, 68, 'home way' (Goal of motion) mehi-ra, 78, 'eye-place' (= Sentinel post) mye-hrah, 342, 'fire- or eye-place' (Genitive of description) hrgon-ru, 82, 'egg's horn' (Genitive of whole) hnah-hchos, 159, 'spring-born' (Temporal) hsan-hlad, 225, &c., 'enmity requital' (Genitive of description) smyi-hnu, 241, 'man('s) strength' (Genitive of possession) hldya-hkan-hte, 51-2, 'water-full' (Genitive of material) hpah-rmag, 205, 'hero-army' (Genitive of description) rgyed-hrah, 87, &c., 'division-place' (Genitive of description).

Thus the ideas which we associate with the term Genitive have no explicit expression: how the phrase 'This is yours' would have been turned in the Nam language does not at present appear.

Is there a formative expressing Agent or Instrument? On the analogy of the Tibetan we should expect to find from vowel stems an Instrumental or Agential Case-ending -s, e.g. has, 'by me', from ha, 'I'. This is likely to be an old formation. The fact that the corresponding kyis, &c., after consonant stems, fails to appear in Nam discourages the expectation of an s after vowels; and, as mentioned, supra (p. 170), the instances of words ending in a vowel followed by s occur almost always at the ends of sentences, and the words are, no doubt, verbs. The few possible examples are discussed infra (pp. 359-60) with negative conclusion. We must therefore hold that the Agential-Instrumental construction is evaded in Nam.

A Dative with Postposition la, as in Tibetan, is well established in the three successive sentence-endings ll. 69, 70:

hbehi-la-hgar, 'a camp for the sheep' hphag-la-gnah 'a place for the hog' hbyig-la-gnah 'a place for the cow'.

The Tibetan Locative Postpositions ru, su, do not appear. But the r-Locative after vowels and the Locative with Postposition na are, as has been seen, frequent, the former very frequent; and there is

a third, doubtless of wider employment, namely dze. The partial equivalence of the three is shown by their alternations, e.g.

myi-rgye-myer(mye-re or °ra), 153 hti-rgye-mye-dze, 154 sku-mag-hno-dze | 58 hdah-mag-hno-dze twan-mag-hnor, 48 hkvan-mag-hnor, 49 htan-hrdzo-hnor, 218-19, 132 hthan-le-tshah-dze, 219 than-rdzo-hkyud-na, 220 hkrug-hrdzo-hgyud-dze, 16 hdza-ma-hne-na-rta-ge-htom-hphah hke-ma-hnyehe-dze-htor-ge-hdzo-htseh || hkehu-hkah-dwan-na-hldyan-hkah-dwan ||| rgoń-wa-myer-rbyo-rgyer-hldyan ||, 363-5 hldan-hkran-hsad-na-hldan-hkran-hsah 124-5. hldan-kran-hwe-dze-hldan-slah-hkehe

In several of the above cases, however, and in many others, the word preceding the -r (= re), na, and dze is not a Substantive, but a Verb, and the sense also demands not local Locatives, but expressions of circumstance or condition, as set forth supra, pp. 173 sqq.; and this may be specially the case in regard to dze, which, as has been previously suggested (JRAS. 1939, p. 209), may be the Chinese word tsai, elsewhere also found spelt dze and dzehi (JRAS. 1926, p. 526; 1927, p. 306) and used in a local or temporal sense. The fact that dze never has the h-Prefix favours the supposition that it is a foreign word. A strictly local sense seems to be conveyed by na in

me-na-hldis, 58, 'bounds (?) in fire' me-na-hsams, 58, 'is tempered (?) in fire'.

II. THE VERB

Ordinarily the Tibetan Verb varies in three ways:

(1) By alternation of Prefixes and associated modifications of initial consonants, e.g.

sgyur/hgyur, spo/hpho, stu/sdu/hthu/hdu-, sñan/mñan/ ñan, hgebs/hkhebs, bcug/hjug, btsugs/hdzugs/gdzugs, gdab/btab, gżag/bżag, hgum/dgum/bkum, bsdus/gtus,

¹ This dze, = Chinese tsai, seems to recur in Hsi-hsia; see Wang Jinqru, op. cit., iii, p. 392, B, column 4.

and some of these alternations are lexical, that is, are stereotyped results of a process no longer active in the language, while others are functional, i.e. freely used with recognized significations. To the former class would belong perhaps the s of spo, stu, &c.; to the latter the variations between g-, usually Prospective (with its by-form d-), and b, usually Aoristic or Preterite. In later Tibetan the functional Prefixes also became lexical or merely graphic: and in early times also many particular, originally functional, forms, such as glan (\sqrt{len}), bgyid, had become lexical.

(2) By addition of a final -s, constituting Preterites or Imperatives:

hthub/hthubs, skye/skyes, hcha/bcas, hbro/bros.

This formation was probably in early times far more prevalent than in the Classical Tibetan, and a lost s is frequently evidenced by a preference for the Gerund suffix ste in place of te and the Imperative suffix sig in place of cig, or by n, a remainder of ns s0, in place of s1.

(3) By vowel alternation, both where the original vowel is e or a:

hjog/bžag, hdren/draň, rtog/brtags and where the o, from a and e verbs, is (usually) a special characteristic of the Imperative, as in:

byed/byos, hgebs/khob(s), sñeg/sñog(s), hcha/chos, hdren/drons.

In the Nam language antithesis of the type spo/hpho, stu/hdu, the s-form being transitive, is manifest in the recurrent expression stor-hdor, 'to scatter in flight', where, however, as in the corresponding Tibetan verbs, the actual relation of sense is the reverse. And the verb spo also occurs, probably with the meaning of the Tibetan spo, 'change'. But that the s- had still a living function is not apparent.

On the other hand, there are some indications that the r-Prefix could be used to form Factitives or Causatives. Thus it is probable that

hrkom-hbron, 157, 331, &c.

means 'slain yak' (\(\sqrt{hgum}\) 'die', \(bkum\) 'slain'). Again, the word \(rpag/hrpag\), antithetic to \(\delta id\), 'high', certainly means 'low' (Tib. \(dpag/dpog\), 'measure', especially of depth), 'brought low', as in

hnah-htsu-rpag-re-hnah-mo-hgam, 193

'When the men of the homes (?) are brought low, the women of the homes are the village.'

But we have also:

hnah-hpag-hldir, 326, 328, 'in this low home (?)'

But, although there are also other cases, hgam/rgam, mag/rmag, hgyeb/rgyeb), where the r-Prefix is apparent, and though it is exemplified in the common word rgyed, 'division' = Tibetan hgyed, and in the allied word rgye, 'extent' = Tibetan dbye, it does not appear that the supposed Factitive, or Causative, func-

tion can provisionally be demonstrated.1

The b-Prefix in verbs can be rapidly disposed of. It is quite clearly seen in bprom (ll. 168, 180), 'made', 'did', bphyag (l. 101), 'saluted', bśi (ll. 196, 198), 'dead' (?), bsog (l. 183), 'collection'; while bbyam (l. 253), which might be similarly interpreted, is perhaps an error for hbyam, which recurs twice in the immediate context. The paucity of the examples, and the fact that the three other words with the Prefix b, viz. bžir, bžer, bzod, are probably (see supra, p. 166) foreign to the Nam language, which perhaps is also the case with phyag, suggest that the b-Preterite is borrowed from Tibetan.

The g-Prefix is more numerously exemplified (supra, pp. 163-5). Are there any signs of a Prospective function? This question is rendered more difficult by reason of the phonological, or scribal, fluctuation between g- and h- which has been discussed supra (pp. 163-5). There are, moreover, cases where the g- and h- forms of verbs are clearly equivalent: this applies to:

gkom-re, 222 = hkom-re, 166, 175
gcheg, 111, 234 (gceg) = hceg, 250
gcihi, 346 = hci, hcihi, 205, 301, 348, 350
gcig, 356 = hcig, 208, cig, 194
g-yog (-rho), 156 = hyog (-rho), 289, 321-2
g-yo/g-yoho, 142, 178-9 = hyo/hyoho, 118-19, 178-9
g-yer(hsah°, hswah°, hscah°), 166-7, 330-1, 346 = yer/hyer
(hsah°, hstsah°), 141, 250-1, 267
hgras, 10, gras, 300 = hras, 344² (but here the g is probably
not a Prefix)

See, further, infra, p. 352.

² g-we (wehi, wehe) perhaps never, and we/hwe/wehi/hwehi (wehe, hwehe) perhaps always, occur as posterior members of compounds.

and in other cases, where the alternation does not occur, a Prospective sense is not apparent. But it will be observed that in contexts which independently express a Prospective sense, e.g. in connexion with auxiliary verbs, such as 'be able', 'tend to', &c., a Prospective and a non-Prospective form would be equally appropriate; and this may account for g-yog/hyog with rho, 'be able', gstor/stor-hdor, 'put to flight', ll. 142-3, and gstor/stor-ta-htoh, l. 152. It is also noticeable that in ll. 25-8, 34, 96, 98, the Preterite -s, hyos, occurs five times, while the non-Preterite g-yo occurs twice, which fact is hardly accidental, though it must be admitted the g- is elsewhere sometimes found with Preterite in -s.2 In the above-discussed phrase:

grtehe-hta-stel, 181, 'granted a fixing'

the Prospective sense is appropriate; and in the near context appears the most persuasive example, if in the vicinity of several occurrences of *hlab* as Presents or Preterites the phrase:

ldyan-glab-hdo ||, 180

means 'will speak (or be spoken)'. On gzo in l. 165 (see p. 199).

Far less dubious, and in fact free from doubt, are the Preterites in -s, formed from both vowel and consonant stems. For the most part, as noted supra, p. 170, these at once proclaim their character by occurring at the ends of sentences: such are:

(a) At end of line or sentence:

Related s-less verb-forms at end of sentence or clause 8-form hkrom(ni), 389 hkroms, 387 hgyan(na), 77 hgyans, 241 hgras, 10, (gras-re, 300) hgrus, 293, 297 hñi, 67 hñis, 70 hthog(ni), 149 hthogs, 145 hthu-re, 140 hthus(ni), 156 gdes, 260 hprom, passim hproms, 122 tshor-na, 220 htsors, 130 (htshors), 134, 219 brehe, 44 hbres, 176 rdzogs, 157

 1 In l. 26 the -s of g-yos is crossed out. In l. 260 gdes is a Preterite. 2 gsus, l. 99 = hsus, l. 93; gsus, l. 262 = hsus, ll. 59, 116, 260, gdes, l. 260.

hgroms, 64 rgyebs, 139 hśas, 102 ñes, 192 (cf. 153, 158, °re)

hldis, 58

hsams, 58 hnus, 16, 34, 40 hwas, 308 hkus, 352 hkes, 36 rkabs, 271, 272

(b) At end of a clause:

s-form hthogs-re, 181, cf. under (a) hwars-ge, 203 hsans, 144 ñes-re, 153, 158 hnus-dze, 34, cf. under (a) swa-hphyegs-na, 176 hras-re, 344 (gras-re, 300)

rders-hdi-na, 107¹ A special case is:

htag-htos, 278, 279

htag-hto-na, 279, 280

where the s is appended to the participial form in hto.

The function of the -s in Tibetan is, as has been stated, Preterite or Aoristic (Perfective);² and there does not seem to be difficulty in recognizing the same in Nam.

Is there any trace of vowel alternation corresponding to the Tibetan hbebs/phab, hjog/bżag, or to hgebs/khob(s), hcha/chos, mdzad/mdzod, the latter being the specially Imperative o, which, however, since many roots with a (e.g. rma/rmo, za/zo, lta/lto) have a by-form with o, may originally have had a wider signification? It is obvious that the question of a functional o is thus, even in Tibetan, in particular instances a difficult one: in Nam there would be the additional difficulty that on the Tibeto-Chinese border a was often, at any rate before m, rounded into o: for

hldi-ma-hrtah (inversion), 63, 71, 144 hsam, 174

hku-rňo, 152 hkehi, 15, 41, 262

Allied s-less form

hwar-hwar, 29

swa-hpeg-na, 360

Some further -s-forms are noted, pp. 357-60.

² Also Imperative.

hgrom, 136, 223 rgyeb-re, 116 hśah, 90, 99

example, the word tshams, 'border', appears in names as tshoms, and bam(s), 'mansion'(?), appears as bom(s), e.g. in Hgo-bom, the original name of Kum-bum; and this might well explain hphom/hpom, 'vanquished', in ll. 147, 347. In many occurrences of verbforms with o we have not, or at any rate we cannot identify, related forms with a or e; and there is no reason to suspect an Imperative. The most probable instances of the Imperative o are:

- htroùhi, ll. 224, 233, 243, which occurs in a speech apparently referring to the future and which may well be Imperative of hdrah, ll. 147, 254: Tibetan has trah/drah (hdren), with Imperative droh/ drohs.
- (2) hlobhi, l. 378, which may well be in an aspiration (note the exclamatory hi) and be the Imperative (Tibetan lobs) of the hlab/glab, of ll. 180-2, &c. If so, the hron/hthon, which end the two next-following sentences, may likewise be Imperatives; the same may be the case as regards hldon (Imperative of hldan, ll. 187-9, 264, 273-4) in ll. 370-2.
- (3) gzo, l. 165, must mean 'shall eat', Imperative of the hdzah of ll. 170, 255: cf. Tibetan za, Imp. zos: note the Prohibitive ma.

The only other question in regard to the Verb is whether the yon/hyon, Auxiliary Verb in the recurrent phrase:

stor-hdor-hyon, 160, 161, 162

is a mark of future time, as in Tibetan are hon and yon. The reference seems to be to a future. If so, hyoho of:

stor-hdor-hyoho, 119

is equivalent to hyono, which is not unlikely by reason of hruhi =

hrunhi (see infra).

Other Tibetan auxiliaries, yin, hgyur, hdug, mchi, htshal ('should', 'ought', 'is supposed to'), zin ('have'), are not apparent in Nam; but run ('be proper', 'ought', 'should', 'have to') is clearly recognizable in:

hrgu-hto-hrun, 30, 32 stor-to (hto)-hrun, 80, 138 hdzohu-hto-hrun, 138

and at the end of a clause in:

stor-hto-hruhi-ge, 167

where hruhi = hrunhi is comparable to hyoho = hyono (supra).

The frequent prom, 'do', 'perform', &c. (possibly = Burmese pru, cf. Burm. phru, 'white' = phrom) has been several times

adduced (e.g. p. 137). As concerns the hkhum/dgum, &c., 'execute', 'carry out' (gñer-hkhums, 'carry out a task or commission') of Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents (ii, pp. 42, 79, &c. = JRAS., 1927, pp. 810, 838, &c., and supra, pp. 137, 142), it seems possible that the same meaning is conveyed by hkom in:

hsah-yob-hkom-re-hran-hrah-htsuhu, 166

'The earth, having done (hkom) quaking, came (back) to its own place,'

and the like is to be seen in Il. 136, (gtse-hkom), 175 (swa-hkom), 222 (swa-gkom), 199 (rgyes-hkom). In Il. 32 (hgru-ma-hkom), 118 (hrtah-hgam-hkom), the hkom is not an auxiliary, but a Substantive Verb with (apparently) the signification 'make'.

The verb re, 'is', in dictionary Tibetan usually red ('Tangut' rit), but occurring also as re (na-re, 'so it is (said)', and in Personal names, Btsan-to-re, &c.), has been instanced in the Rgyal-ron song (pp. 85-6) and also as frequently used in the Nam text (see p. 174 sqq.) with the value of a Gerund, 'being': sometimes, e.g. in:

hche-hmu-gdag-re-gsan-hkah-hrehi, 204

it concludes a sentence as the principal verb. *Mod*, with the sense of 'is really', as in Tibetan, may be seen in:

hdyan-hto-hton-ge-hgo-gton-mod, 210-11

'those who surrender the hdyan-hto really surrender the gate (or place)'.

A cognate of Tibetan yod, 'exist', does not occur; but its negative, in Tibetan med, 'not exist', has been exemplified (pp. 174-5 sqq.) in the form mye-re, 'not existing': this also, as me+hi, may end a sentence, e.g. in:

hman-sta-mehi || . . . hri-stah-mehi, 311

'the big is not there . . . the mountain is not there.'

Even the ordinary myi, Tib. mi, myi, 'not' can function in the same way, e.g. in:

hphu-hklo-hsad-dze-hnah-me-hmyi ||, 40

'if the hphu-hklo is destroyed, 'home-fire is none (or the place is fireless, me-hmyi).'

perhaps also in phyi-hse-myi, l. 98.

The stor-hdor type of Compound Verb appears also in hldan-phyer, phyer-chan, hldim-chim, rgyer-hldyan, rbyi-hldyihi, &c.

III. PRONOUNS

Nam words for 'I', 'thou', 'he', and their plurals have not been found. We should expect na (not kho-bo) = 'I' (Hsi-hsia no—Laufer, No. 14), na perhaps (certainly not khyod) = 'thou'; while for 'he', 'they', the Tibetan kho, khon-ta is not at all likely, though kan exists in 'Tangut' and kwan-tha-cha, i.e. Tibetan khon-ta, in Thōchū.': Hsi-hsia tha (Nevsky, Nos. 71, 225).

'This' is clearly the frequently recurring hldi, = Tibetan hdi, sometimes (ll. 107, 198) in the latter form or as hdihi (ll. 43 (?), 184, 391). We do not find the tha, 'he', 'it', of Hsi-hsia, since the

tha which occurs has probably a different meaning.

'There', Tibetan da, would seem to be the ldah of hran-hldah-hnam-ge, 'heavens (or celestials) themselves-there' (i.e. the heavens, or celestials, proper); cf. Tibetan Hbon-da-rgyal, 'the Hbon-there king', Da-red, 'There-being' (= 'of that ilk').2 If the verse:

hldihi-su-hldon-dze-hlda-hko-ge-hdzon, 195

means:

'What land he departs to, there is his castle' then hlda may, like the Tibetan de, hdi, be followed by a Particle ko, giving the sense of 'in that very place'.

The form sta, in eastern Tibetan sta-re, 'that being so' (not

sta-re, 'axe'), seems to be used correlatively in:

sta-re-hmo(g)-ge-sta-hri-hldyan, 19, cf. 9, 252

'Where were the clouds, there the mountains flew (?)'
but not in:

hri (g-rihi, g-ri)-stah (sta)-mehi, 311-13

'the mountain is not there'.

Su, to which we have just attributed a Relative sense, might then, like the Tibetan su, be also Interrogative in:

dgu-hldo-htor-ge-su-me-hmehi, 114

'When the heat is great, who kindles a fire?'

perhaps also in:

su-ge-stor-ta-hthogs ||, 145 'who stopped the flight?'

¹ Prejevalsky, ii, p. 138; Hodgson, p. 144.
² Similarly Mchin-rgyal-hdi, 'our Mchin king', in one of the Tibetan manuscripts.

The ci, chi of:

hkwi-htsa-hyog-hdag-ci-hran-hdom-gdes ||, 259-60 'the elders with their staves affirmed their decisions' (?)

and of the following lines may be the Tibetan Relative ci, ji.

It is possible that hji, which seems to occur (ji) in the Berlin fragment (ll. 10, 15, 16), may be the same Relative in ll. 78, 211.

One of the words hran, of frequent occurrence, must be = Tibetan ran, 'self', e.g. in:

hran-hrah, 'own place', 21, 166, 167

and in the above-mentioned hran-hldah.

Re, beside being the verb 'be', evidently in ban(hban)-hre (hrehe) in ll. 249-51, jo-re, &c., ll. 251-2, and perhaps in pra (hpra)-hre (hrehe), ll. 43, 267, means 'each', 'every' = Tibetan re (res, 'turn', 'times'), and Hsi-hsia re, 'many', 'all'. In l. 132 we have apparently hre = Tib. re, 'hope'.

IV. NUMERALS

With the Tibetan names for the numerals 1-9, viz.:

gcig(cig), gñis(ñis), gsum(sum, so), bài(àe), lha(ha), drug, bdun(don), brgyad, dgu(go)

it would be simple to compare the Nam words:

gcig(cig), ḥñis(ḥňi, ñi), gsom, bàir, ṅa(ḥṅa, &c.), trog, rgyed, dgu(gu, ḥgo)

more especially as we leave out of consideration the Tibetan word for '7', curiously reminiscent of the Indo-European septm and not found in Tibeto-Burman languages outside the specially Tibetan sphere. It is, however, quite unlikely that a form corresponding to Tibetan gcig, cig, almost equally confined to the Tibetan sphere, should have existed in Nam; and superficially the same applies also to bžir, which, moreover, is in Nam probably a foreign word. Furthermore, all the other Nam terms have demonstrably other meanings; and that they have also the numerical meanings, which in the abstract is quite possible, would require to be proved. Hence we might provisionally have no Nam words for the numerals 1-9.

In the eastern Tibeto-Burman dialects the most constant of the

¹ Nevsky, No. 88.

numeral forms are those for 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, which we may generalize as:

ñi, som (sam, sum, so), na, drug (truk), gu

It will be shown infra (pp. 234-5, 241) that forms corresponding to the first, second, third, and fifth of these, viz. $s\tilde{n}i$, $h\tilde{n}i$, $(g\tilde{n}i)$, gsom, na (Hsi-hsia, $b\tilde{n}ih$, nu, Nevsky, No. 87) do exist in the Nam text. For '1' we might expect some equivalent of the a and tha of Hsi-hsia, both rather widespread, in various forms, in Hsi-fan and other Tibeto-Burman languages; but it seems certain that neither of them occurs.

What will have been the form of the word for '4' will be suggested infra (pp. 324-6): possibly the borrowed word bzir, which occurs in the vicinity of a gsom, which may = '3', has that sense.

'Seven' is also in Tibeto-Burman a highly variable form, whereof the numerous modifications have been discussed supra (pp. 90,
92–3 sqq.). In Nam we should, on the ground of vicinity to T'aochou and Mi-ñag, expect some skwi, stwi, or the like. There is
therefore just a possibility that the expression hkhwi-htsa, 1. 259,
if it should, as is probable, mean 'old' (Hsi-hsia wi/dwi/dwih,
Nevsky, No. 134), may be = 'man of 70 years'.

In the forms hgu/dgu, ll. 126-7, we probably have the Nam word for '9' (Tib. dgu), used according to a familiar Tibetan idiom

in the sense of 'all': see p. 290.

The word for '10' is likely to have been ga, which not only is given in Tibetan script (dgah, dghah) as the Hsi-hsia form (Nevsky, No. 145), but also occurs apparently in a Tibetan expression from the Nam region (supra, p. 135, n. 1). It will be = Hōrpa $sg\bar{a}$, '10',

&c. (see pp. 90, 93, &c.).

No expressions for '20', &c., are apparent, and there is no clear reason for attaching the meaning '100' to the hard-worked syllable rgya, or to any part of it, such as ya, attested by several languages. 'Thousand' should be something like (s)tom, (s)ton, which both occur, the first, however, not meaning 'thousand', the second perhaps a loan-word from Tibetan with that sense (see infra, pp. 233-4). On myen = 10,000 see infra, p. 234; on a suffix -ke, used with numerals to indicate a group, pp. 241, 272.

V. PARTICLES

Forthwith apparent as a Particle is yan, hyan, in those cases where it occupies the caesura position, e.g. in:

stor-hto-rta-yan-stor-to-hrun | ° | rta-hso-hnah-yan-gñi-hrdzum-doho || 79–80 hkor-htah-hkhen-yan-sñan-gyan-gyan hjah-htah-hkhen-yan-swa-tseg-tseg || sñan-ne-thehe-yan-stor-dor-yon ||, 160

So also in:

hldyan-hpu-hbri-re-mehi-klu-hcah-yan-stor-hdor-hyon ||,161 and the two following lines: and frequently elsewhere, e.g. ll. 172, 255–6, 300, 306, 332.

In the first group of examples the concessive sense of the Tibetan yan, 'although', 'even', seems to prevail, while elsewhere the alternative meaning, 'also', of the same may be more apt.

The equivalent form, kyan, of the Tibetan seems attested by the parallelism in ll. 344-5:

hbo-hron-hrog-re-hlah-hkyan-hras-re-hŝes-gŝi-[hdzuḥi ?] || rgyeb-hchi-hro-re-gdag-yan-la-por-hŝes-hŝi-hdzuḥi ||

and the same may probably be seen elsewhere:

hdzań-hkhor-hkrug-hkyań . . . , 18 hkhor-kyań-rwehi-re . . . , 98 hkrug-kyań-hldom-re . . . , 371–2.

The form gyan of Tibetan may possibly occur in:

g-rah-nag-hbo-gyan . . ., 263.

Tsam, making a limit, 'only so much', &c., may perhaps be seen in:

gśi-brom-hnu-ge-hsor-htsam-bzod 'supports only a finger (weight)' see p. 342.

By far the most common Particle is ge, very rarely (II. 5, 8) hge, which is found all over the text, both in its favourite caesura position, as in:

hnah-hchos-re-ge-hldan-myi-seg, 159 and the two following verses, and also in other situations, e.g. in:

... hnah-hran-ge-rwyin ||, 33 ... hyos-htag-ge-hjoho ||, 34 ... hkye-ge-hmu ||, 39 hre-ge-rgyo-dze ..., 48 ru-ge-hkrom-dze . . ., 70

hjim-li-li-re-pa-la-la-ge-tho-rgyam-ge-hwad-re-smyi-hdze-gehkab ||, 109-10

hthan-phu-hkam-ge-rie-hbye-hkwehe-ge-hthan-hgam-hriehe,

hlo-ge-blah-hldo-ge-na-rne-ne, 154-5.

hlab-ta-gbohu-ste-ge-hthogs-re-hlab-ge-planna, 181-2.

A word occurring in these ways, and with this frequency, must be a very general formal element. The first passage quoted, where in the caesura position it follows re, which itself so often, at the end of a subordinate clause, occupies that position, suggests that it was merely a Particle of emphasis; while the next examples indicate that it served, like the Tibetan mi in some cases, merely to mark off the Subject or Object from the Predicate. Perhaps we may combine the two situations in the statement that ge can mark off any item of a sentence from its Predicate and also in a similar way mark off a whole subordinate clause from its main clause, becoming in the latter case almost an equivalent to re and ste or dze, the former two of which, however, it can follow, and the latter it can precede. Very possibly it conferred a slight emphasis, like the Greek $\gamma \epsilon$.

But why may not ge be a sign of Plurality, possibly = Chinese (in Tibetan script) ke, kehi, 'all'? To this question it does not seem possible to give an immediate answer. But we may note that the ge can occur not only before the Postposition dze, as above,

but also before the ta-formative, e.g. in:

g-ron-hyed-ge-ta, 71

... hlde-ge-htah-hldon, 370, 371, 372.

The Particles o, hi, ni, na, don, have been discussed in connexion

with the morphology of the sentence (pp. 175-9).

The two negatives ma and myi probably agree in their employment with the Tibetan ma and mi/myi, concerning which it is usually said that ma is used (a) in prohibitions, (b) with past tenses, (c) with the present tenses of certain verbs signifying 'is', while mi is used with Present and Future tenses. But naturally there are refinements; and in general statements even with present tenses ma is apt to intrude.

The Nam text has ma prohibitive in ma-gzo, l. 165 (see p. 199). Inconsistency in general statements is seen in gtsan-myi-hrgan, 'grain does not mature', &c., ll. 159-60, as compared with hldi-ma-hrtah and mo-ma-hthor, 'the horse does not leap', &c., ll. 63, 71, 144.

APPENDIX

Table showing phonetic restrictions upon the application of Prefixes in Tibetan (T), Tibetan manuscripts from Central Asia (T'), Nam (N), Hsi-hsia (H), and Žań-żuń (Ž).

	g-	d-	b-	775-	h-	r-	l-	8-
k	N	TH	TH	T'	TN	TNHŻ	TNŽ	TNŻ
kh	44.5	H	4.4	TH	TN	HŻ	Ž	TNZ
g		TNH	TH	T	TNH	TNHZ	TN	TŽ
n		TH	H	TN	N	TNHŻ	T	T
c	TNH	140	T	T'	TN	2	T	N
ch	T'N	***	T'	T	TN	2		
j	H	- 22	H	T	TN	TNHŻ	T	
ñ	TNH		T'	T	N	TNŽ		TNZ
1	TNH	7670	T	T'	TN	TNHŻ		TNHZ
th	T'	-	T	T	TNH	Ż	-	Ž
d	TNHŻ	N	TH	T	TNH	TNHŻ	TNHŻ	TŽ
71	TNH		T	T	N	TNHŻ	7.11	TŽ
p		T	Ñ		TN	NŽ	TNŽ	TNZ
ph	N	T'	N	T'	TN	Ž	*****	Ž
b	N	THŻ	N		TNH	TNZ	TŻ	TNZ
m	NH	THŻ	100 mg	100	N	THNZ		TNZ
ta	TNH	1112	т	T	TNH	TNHZ	3.5	TNZ
tsh	T'	н	TH	Î	TN	T'	54.6	Ž
dz	NH	(35)	H	T	TNH	TNHŻ	35	*
w	N	T(?)N(?)			N	T(?)N		0.404.0
	TH		TNH	***	**	N N		3.5
4 2	TNH	5.5	TN	***	N	H	**	**
	TNH	100	TA	1.00	N	п	**	**
y	The second second	2.5	PRICER	7.7		1.5	237	3.3
r L	NH	0.6	TH	0.99	N	*.*.	10.0	(0.0)
	TN	111	TH	1355	N	200	***	100
á	TNH	***	TN	100	N	N		N
8	THNZ		T'NH	27.	N	N	A	**
h	2.4			**		Ż	T(?)H(?)Ž	9.0

- 1. It is not necessary here to consider the original form, presumably syllabic, or the original employment, of any of the Prefixes, matters which have been discussed by Conrady in his celebrated work Eine indochinesische Causativ-Denominativ-Bildung and by the late Dr. Wolfenden in his original and interesting Outlines of Tibeto-Burman Linguistic Morphology. We can refer only to their actual employment as apparent in the four earliest sources named above, where none of the Prefixes is ever syllabic.
- 2. r., l., s., are here reckoned as Prefixes, and in all the four languages they are somewhat abundantly represented. For this reason they are likely to be the original common patrimony; and this inference is confirmed by two circumstances: (a) they always

immediately precede the root and are often preceded by one member of the remaining group, g-, d-, b-, m-, h-; (b) by the Tibetan grammarians they are not regarded as Prefixes, but treated as part of the root, not functional at all; and this treatment was, no doubt, as early as the alphabet itself, since in the script the r-, l-, s-, are superfixed to the following consonant in a compound aksara, whereas those of the other group are prefixed as separate items. The Tibetans did not know that the s- of spo, the r- of rdun, the l- of ljen were originally Prefixes: they speak only of the five, g-, d-, b-, m-, h-, ascribing to them functions, which they proceed to define.

3. The Zan-zun manuscripts have no b-, m-, h-, and of g- they have only two occurrences (gdan, gsad), of b- likewise only two (dbem, dmo), all which occurrences, being found in a medical text, may well be borrowings. It is therefore probable that in Zan-zun, and in any other original Tibeto-Burman languages of the western regions of 'Tibet', the whole group g-, d-, b-, m-, h- was lacking. This supports the suggestion of a difference of date between the two groups; but it does not follow that the members of the later group discharged the same functions as had originally been discharged by those of the earlier: the contrary is suggested by the case of the secondary (syllabic) Prefixes in Hsi-fan.

In the use of r-, l-, s-, Žań-żuń has the following combinations not allowed in Tibetan:

rkh, re, reh, rth, rp, rph, rh, lkh skh, sth, sph

of which rkh recurs in Hsi-hsia, rp in Nam.

4. Taking together the other three languages, we find that m- is practically confined to Tibetan, the single occurrence (miar) in Nam being probably Tibetan, and the mkhi (no meaning) and mkhhe/mkhwe, 'play', 'sport' (Nevsky, No. 73) of Hsi-hsia in Tibetan transcription being problematical.

In the Tibetan verbal system m- is credited with a function, not temporal, or modal, but roughly definable as indicative of non-activity or state. Only a single instance is given (mnags); but from literature we might adduce some other cases of m- in the verb-paradigm. It may be noted that in Tibetan m-, when prefixed to nasals n, n, n, is often a substitute for b-, which is sometimes preserved in T'NH.

Functional Prefixes should be primarily indifferent to phonetical inconvenience. But in Tibetan the earliest grammarians, while stating functions for the Prefixes g-, d-, b-, m-, h-, have also announced phonetical restrictions upon the use of those Prefixes, which restrictions

¹ See Les Stokas grammaticaux de Thonmi Sambhota, par Jacques Bacot, p. 60.

tions have been accepted in the common orthography. This inconsistency has been noted by Conrady (pp. 19, 28 sqq.) and Wolfenden (pp. 12, 18, 40), both of whom have questioned the originality of the restrictions, the former also remarking (p. 46) that phonetical incompatibility in the occurrence of two Prefixes, such that one can precede those consonants which the other cannot, is a sign of identity of function. It is, of course, obvious that such collocations as gk-, gph-, bp-, bph-, bb-, though in Nam they all actually occur, must ultimately have been found intolerable and may have been avoided even at a sacrifice of a consistent discrimination of the functions. The resultant system, especially as seen in the four-stem Transitive verb, is expounded in the native, and all the modern, grammars.

According to the system, while q_{\cdot} , d_{\cdot} , b_{\cdot} , all alike imply that the verbal action is one which has an agent, q_{\cdot} and d_{\cdot} are used to form Future tenses (i.e. they have a Prospective value) and b_{\cdot} forms Perfects (i.e. Preterites or Aorists):

Thus from dul we have:

Present hdul, Preterite btul, Future gdul, Imperative thul.

But, when the root has a guttural initial, g- is excluded by the phonetic rule, and d is substituted, resulting in:

Present hgel, Preterite bkal, Future dgal, Imperative khol; and when the initial is a labial, both b and g are excluded, and the outcome is as in:

Present hbul, Preterite phul, Future dbul, Imperative phul,

the Preterite having the aspirate ph in place of the inconvenient combination bp. There are, of course, various other schemes corresponding to other forms of the root.

Forms of roots with initial tenuis aspirata replacing their initial media are, no doubt, very ancient, irrespective of Conrady's theory of their origin (from s and media): and the simplest explanation of the divergence in the Preterite of verbs with labial initial is to suppose that in all the three above cases the Preterite had originally the aspirate together with the b- Prefix, thus:

*bthal, *bkhal, *bphul

and that bth, bkh, became bt, bk, while bph, as was natural, simply lost its b. The change of bth > bt, bkh > bk, may have been merely phonetical. If it had been convenient to substitute for the b of *bphul, as for the g of *gbul, a d, the Preterite would perhaps have become *dpul in place of phul.

The thus posited combinations bth-, gth-, &c., might have disappeared prior to the introduction of writing in Tibet. But in fact they are to be found abundantly in the written documents and other manuscripts of the seventh to ninth century A.D. As the T entries

in the table show, the aspirate rule does not exist so far as these writings are concerned, although the occurrence of the tenuis discloses the fact that the transition bth-, gth-, &c., to bt-, gt-, was already effected; whether the matter is one of dialectical divergence or of period need not be considered. But it should be noted that in respect also of the Prefixes m- and h- the spelling of the documents and manuscripts is similarly disregardful of the aspirate rule. Nor is this all: from the table it may be seen, as noted above, that in the case of the Prefixes of the old group, r-, l-, s-, the Žan-žun spelling has no regard to the aspirate rule, which in the Tibetan grammar applies to these also; and in the Tibetan documents and in Hsi-hsia and Nam there is the same freedom. Whether the Tibetan changes of aspirate to tenuis in the combinations in question (bth-, gth-, rth-, lth-, sth-, &c.) was phonetical or, in whole or part, otherwise, depends upon etymologies and need not be considered here: nor need we consider the media retained in the Futures gdul, &c.; that characteristic of the Future may have antedated the use of the g., b., d., group of Prefixes, since in cases where the aspirate is taken as belonging to the root, e.g. in:

Present hthub, Preterite btubs, Future gtub, Imperative hthub we see that gth- becomes gt-, just as bth- becomes bt-.

But, secondly, the possibility that from roots with labial initial an inconvenient Preterite such as bphul could have been made workable by substitution of d- for b-, just as it was substituted in the Future for g- in ggum, &c., and in bgul, &c., was likewise realized in practice. For this d, as a substitute for b- in the Preterite of labials, is exemplified in the documents by dblanis (\sqrt{blan}) = Nam gblan and dphrogs (\sqrt{hphrog}), of which the latter is not allowed by the phonetical rules. We even find drna, drgyal, written in place of rna, rkyal.

It appears therefore that in the verbal paradigm d- is a supplementary or substitute Prefix, due to phonetical convenience. Where it appears as an alternative (dgod/rgod, &c.) in the Present and is retained throughout the paradigm, the case is not necessarily otherwise, since it is recognized that such verb-stems, like those with g-, b-, m-, may be secondary generalizations. The d- need not be of purely phonetical origin or evoked from nowhere, if outside the verbal system it can be shown to be in some cases original. But we cannot rely upon instances such as dgu, '9'; and we must at least realize that in the eastern part of 'Tibet' the d- neither exists at present nor appears ever to have existed. Even in Khams it is regularly represented by a guttural (gh, Linguistic Survey of India, III. i, p. 137)1 while in 'Tangut' (rgiu, '9', &c.) and 'Amdoan' (rka = dkah, &c.)7- appears. There seems to be no trace of the d- in the Rgyal-ron,

¹ That the d- was from the first non-existent in Khams was considered possible by Jaeschke (Berlin Academy Monatsbericht, 1867, p. 165).

where the dominant Prefix is sh (s), or in any 'Ch'iang' dialect, and in 'Eastern Tibetan' it is absent, like the other Prefixes. It should not, indeed, be overlooked that in Tibetan transcriptions of Hsi-hsia there are not a few words with d- prefixed to k or kh or g or b or m, also two instances of dn- and one of dtsh-. But in the present position of Hsi-hsia philology, when the meanings of many of the words in question are unknown, the spellings capricious, and when the value of the Prefixes in the Tibetan transcriptions is disputed, nothing can be ventured in regard to this matter. It will be seen that, except in the case of dkh- (aspirate!) and dtsh- (for gtsh-?), the spelling observes the Tibetan phonetical restrictions, a circumstance all the more suspicious as in dmu, 'fire', we have the Tibetan dm-, while gmuh, with the expected gm- (occurring also in Nam), is also recorded.

The Prefixes d- and m- may thus be regarded as foreign to three of the four ancient languages and confined to Tibetan—it is immaterial if in other (southern) Tibeto-Burman areas equivalents of them can be traced. Concerning h-, which is abundantly represented in Tibetan and Hsi-hsia and extraordinarily so in Nam, it may be sufficient to refer to the statement supra (p. 76), where it is shown that in the form of a nasal element this Prefix persists widely in the modern pronunciation of the eastern Tibet and the Tibeto-Chinese borderland. Conrady (p. 20) and Wolfenden (pp. 31-3) have suggested for it original functional values: or was it merely a phonetic feature? In any case it must have been extremely ancient.

- 5. There are some further particulars in which the Tibetan phonetical restrictions are unoriginal:
- (a) Tibetan gż-, gz-, bż-, bz-, are derived from gj-, gdz-, bj-, bdz-, as is clear from the verb-paradigms such as:

hjog/gżag/bżag, hdzin/gzuń/bzuń and from other cases. In Hsi-hsia (Tibetan transcription) we actually find gj-, gdz-, bj-, bdz-, in Nam gdz-: even in Tibetan we have gjen written for gcen, chen.

- (b) Tibetan gw-, gr-, gl-, bl- were in some instances formed from roots with initial w, r, l, analogous to Tibetan g-y-: an instance is glan/blans from √len. The combinations g-w-, g-r-, occur in Nam and in Hsi-hsia, and the latter has even g-l- and b-l-.
- (c) The form mphro occurring in a carefully written Tibetan text with the clearly intended sense of an abstract noun of action, 'a going forward', shows that the functional value of even m- could prevail against the phonetical objection to its being prefixed to a labial.
- As to the temporal function of g., d., b., in the Tibetan verb paradigm doubt has been expressed by both Conrady (pp. 19, 28 sqq.)

and Wolfenden (pp. 49, 53). But such doubt must be regarded as applying to the original signification of those Prefixes, and not to their earliest attested usage; for not only are the Prefixes freely used to form Preterite (Aorist) and Future (Prospective) tenses, wherever phonetically legitimate, from verbs with initials of all classes, and from verbs with compound initials—producing forms such as brk-, bsk-, bsk-, bst-, brd-, bsp- and even gst-, grt-, glt-,—in Hsi-hsia even grz,—but we can produce ancient texts where g/b (or d) forms of a single verb are used antithetically to mark a temporal contrast. This proves that a Tense value of the Prefixes was actual; but not that it was original—even the Indo-European Aorist and Perfect were not originally Tenses—and another element in the signification of g-, d-, b-, and also of m-, is, as we have seen, defined by the Tibetan grammarians.

7. In regard to r., l., s., which for the etymologist, though not for the Tibetan grammarians, are Prefixes, the only question in connexion with the four languages is whether the Prefixes have in them become merely lexical or retain traces of a living function. In Tibetan the r- and l- have not hitherto been credited with a historically living function; but, as regards s., the large number of forms such as stu, sdu, spo, &c., with Transitive sense and paired with Intransitives such as hthu, hdu, hpho, &c., has long been recognized as proving a Transitive function of the s-; and that function must have been active down to a time not long anterior to the historical period. Since r- and s- do not appear to have been phonetically 'incompatible' or mutually supplementary, their original functions were presumably different.

V. THE LANGUAGE: ETYMOLOGY

To describe the grammatical system of a language without knowing the meanings of the words may well seem to be a hazardous adventure. But the converse is equally true; and, as has been mentioned, the formal features, being of a general nature, are more likely to reveal themselves upon a first survey than the meanings of individual words. In the present case, moreover, we have the advantage that the language by its phonology declares itself to be not only a Tibeto-Burman dialect, but also one at approximately the same stage of development as the earliest known Tibetan. Hence there is a plausibility in the identification of prima facie similar features both of grammatical structure and of word-forms. A number of such 'self-evident' etymologies have been cited and used in the preceding discussions. But selected particulars may seem open to doubt until confirmed by a wider etymological knowledge of the language. To a certain extent a phonological ratio between two kindred languages may be established through syntactical equivalences elicited by a general survey: thus the postpositions na, la, te, the verb-suffix -s, and particles such as ni, yan, common to Tibetan and Nam, throw some light upon the developments of vowels and consonants in the latter, and so serve to control further etymologizing. But without independent ascertainment of meanings a comparison of forms is in a measure conjectural; and this is notably the case in regard to monosyllabic languages, where so commonly the monosyllables have each several significations.

Before discussing the further ways of investigating and verifying meanings it will be convenient to mention some principles which may lend useful guidance:

- Correspondence of Nam expressions to Tibetan has enhanced probability when:
 - (a) the expressions are known to have been more or less contemporary, which practically means that the Tibetan ones belong to the earliest records of the language;
 - (b) the expressions are attested in the same area of 'Tibet' and have therefore a chance of being 'regional'. And this factor applies also to usages of modern dialects which are not evidenced in old Tibetan;

- (c) the time-factor in (a) and the regional factor in (b) are combined, thereby increasing their force.
- (2) Probability of equivalence increases somewhat with the complexity of the forms compared. Thus, it is far more likely that a Nam word rdzogs should be equivalent to a Tibetan word rdzogs than would be the case between rog and rog. In Tibeto-Burman, however, this argument is weakened by the frequency of homophones: thus, there were in Tibetan at least five different words rgyan. The general probability applies in particular to:

(a) phrases or compounds: thus, there is a greater likelihood of connexion between Nam hldan-kran, proved by repetition to be a standing phrase, and Tibetan dranmkhran from the same region and similarly established as a phrase, than there would have been between the members of the two compounds individually;

(b) words and phrases which by virtue of some relation of antithesis, &c., are in pairs or groups; thus, if a Nam word is identified with a Tibetan word meaning 'long', the probability of the conjecture is increased if there are on both sides related forms which can unite in the meaning 'short'. In the case of Nam this consideration (b) is rendered important by the antithetic style of the verses, which corresponds to what has been remarked elsewhere in the Tibetan area.¹ For example in the passage (ll. 124-7):

> hldan-hkran-hsad-na-hldan-hkran-hsah hldan-kran-hwe-dze-hldan-slah-hkehe hldan-kran-hko-dze-stor-hldan-hphyar hldan-kran-spo-dze-stor-hgu-hbo || hldan-kran-hnam-dze-stor-dgu-hdor |||

it is immediately evident that there is a relation of antithesis (of fact or logic) between the successive predicates hsad, hwe, hko, spo, hnam; and this is a factor which will assist or control the determination of their meanings.

¹ A. H. Francke, Der Frühlingsmythus der Kesarsage (Mémoires de la Société Finno-Ougrienne xv, Helsingfors, 1900), p. vi, Buddhistische Volkslieder aus Ladakh (Mitteilungen des Seminars für Orientalische Sprachen zu Berlin xxx), pp. 118, 121, Ladakhi Songs, i, Leh, 1899, p. 2. See also Rockhill, Diary, pp. 168-9.

- (3) Etymologies which have been established as certain furnish rules for judgement in similar cases: thus, if we know, as we may, that the Nam antithesis hbri(bri)/hbrah(brah) is identical with the Tibetan antithesis hbri(bri)/bra, then we anticipate that in other Nam words initial br will have retained its r (which would not be the case in Hsi-hsia, Hsifan in general, Lo-lo, Mo-so, or modern Central Tibetan) and that final i and a will have remained intact.
- (4) Phonological divergence in particular cases ceases to be a cause of difficulty, if we can show regional evidence for the change which it is proposed to allow. Thus, the Nam word rgyeb may be identical, as we have reason to suppose, with Tibetan rgyab, 'back', 'put back', &c., because in the Koko-nor region the changes -ab>-eb, -ag>-eg, are evidenced in early times. We here neglect the consideration that the e-form may be original, since even in Tibetan itself many a-forms are related to e-verbs (e.g. khab, kag, to hkhebs, hgegs).

Where such substitutions, e.g. of r as a Prefix for s, d, and sometimes m and b, are characteristic of the Nam language in general, it is unnecessary to consider them except as indications of regional tendencies. But where in the Nam itself we have to account for something unexpected, it may be evidential to cite such phenomena of local and contemporary Tibetan, more especially when they occur in identical words; for instance, the Tibetan manuscripts have the, perhaps original, form hdre, 'lead', 'draw', instead of the normal hdren; they have r-less forms, hdzon, gyud, of rdzon, 'castle', rgyud, 'race'; occasional substitution of i for e (stigs, sis, cis); confusion (bran for bran, dgum for dgun), loss (dgu for dgun), or mistaken addition (rgum for dgu) of final m, n, n; confusion (by no means unexampled in ordinary Tibetan) of s and s (bsen for bsen), dr- and tr-, lt- and ld-, and so forth. Lh also is of doubtful origin in Tibetan. It would be superfluous here to cite many of these numerous peculiarities, which are being summarized elsewhere: they may be adduced singly where applicable.

(5) Orthographical fluctuation in the Nam text has been discussed supra (pp. 117 sqq.), where an endeavour has been made to show that it is not unlimited. As between tenuis

¹ See pp. 347 sqq.

and tenuis aspirata it is extremely frequent: hkh, hch, hth, hph, htsh, can always be written hk, hc, ht, hp, hts, while the converse, and also confusion of tenuis and media, are rarer.

In this matter of orthography, where the facts are established from the Nam text itself, it is not necessary, but interesting, to mention that the Tibetan manuscripts exhibit substantially the same amount and varieties of fluctuation.

I. ANTITHESIS AND CONTEXT

OF the above considerations the one most immediately applicable is that of antithesis, whereof we may now proceed to adduce some instances:

1. Hbra; hbri; hyan; mor; htham; mug; hrah; gsan; hre.

Attention has been previously (JRAS, 1939, p. 197) called to the fact that the Berlin fragment commences with four sentences as follows:

mor-ma-de-klo . . . yan-ma-ji-de . . . bri-ma-zor-de . . . hbra-ma-gar-de . . .

and two others (successive) begin:

mug-tse-khyig-re-te . . . htham-tse-re-te . . .

while in our manuscript we have successive verses beginning (II. 225-8):

mor-hgu-hrdzor . . . hyań-hrah-hsań-re . . . mug-hgu-rdzor . . . htham-rah-gsań-re . . . hbri-hgu-rdzor . . . brah-hrah-gsań-re . . .

The former shows a general correspondence or antithesis among the four items mor, yan, bri, hbra, and then a like relation between mug and htham: the latter passage shows a correspondence between mor, mug, hbri, and a correspondence between hyan, htham, and brah, combined with an antithesis between the two groups.

In Tibetan hbri means 'diminish', 'grow less', while bra is 'have or be in great plenty', whence come bra-bo, 'buckwheat', and—since most Tibetan nouns in -s are really Aorist forms of

verb-roots—hbras, 'rice', hbras-bu, 'fruit'. Accordingly we see why in Nam hbri and hbra can be contrasted; and at the same time we understand why a place in the Koko-nor region may have been named Bra-ma-than, 'Plain of Plenty'. It follows also that the three words hyan, htham, brah denote things approved, while mor, mug, hbri are things disliked. The three former are followed severally by the phrase hrah-gsan(hsan)-re, the latter by hgu-rdzor (hrdzor).

Provisionally we do not know the meanings of hyan and htham or of the phrase hrah-gsan-re, though the last may suggest Tib. ra-gsan, 'place purified (or secret)'. The antithesis between hyan and mor is recurrent, being found also in Il. 9-10, 40-1, 286-7, 388, of which the last, the most convenient for citation, is,

mor-tsah-khrom-re || hyan-tsa-heer ||.

In Tibetan g-yan signifies 'happiness', 'good luck', 'blessing', 'prosperity'; but for its opposite, mor, we can adduce nothing nearer than dmod/rmod, 'blame', 'reproach', 'curse'. Tibetan mug is 'gloom', and the related rmugs, 'fog', 'stupid', 'sluggish', which occurs in Amdoan as rmūkha (Prejevalsky, ii, p. 137), would well suit the expression mug-bu, 'stupid children' (?), in the Berlin fragment (l. 12). Htham will probably be connected with Tib. htham 'unite', hthams, 'clasp in affection', whence come the words thams-cad, tham-zin, 'all', 'whole'; for this meaning prevails in the Tibetan manuscripts. Thus htham-hrah is the paradisial 'place, or state, of union' contrasted with the dissensions of the Evil Age. In the Berlin Fragment (l. 18) htham-gnam-tsa-ge means 'the undivided celestial folk'.

It may be observed that in ll. 132-3,

hbri-hldi-hthan-re-hre-hldi-hyah,

hbri occurs in antithesis to hre, which will be apt, if hre is equivalent to Tibetan re, 'hope'. On Hbra as a local and tribal name see pp. 307-8, 319-20.

2. Hbri; hpu; hpo; hpho; hdzohu, hjohu; hjo.

In another group of passages hbri is antithetic to hpu:

hldyan-hpu-hbri-re, 150, 161, 218, 343.

hbri-hsehe-hpu[-]r[e], 163.

bri-gśe-hpuhi-re, 329.

These must all belong together, especially in view of the adjacency

1 Mentioned in the Tibetan MS. Chronicle.

² But the Rgyal-ron language (Jyā-run) has mör, 'night', and mör, 'old'.

of Il. 161 and 163. A predominant meaning of pu in Tibeto-Burman is 'man', 'male' (Tib. po/pho), and, if hbri/bri can mean 'female', we obtain the reasonable renderings:

'the hldyan males being (weak) females',
'the wise (hśehe, gśe) females being males'.

But Tibetan hbri does denote a female, namely the yak-cow, and it appears in the name Hbri-chu, 'Yak-cow river', of the Yang-tsechiang in its Tibetan course. In the Nam passages either the word denotes females in general or the reference is to females of the yak-species. The combination of meanings in Nam hbri/bri confirms the identity of the word with the Tibetan forms.

Apart from explicit antithesis, hpu = 'male' is clear also in: hpu-hbron-rkom-ge, 157, 'the male yak-bull being killed'.

One other meaning of hpu, namely 'bird' (= Tib. bya, i.e. bwya, Hsi-hsia (Laufer, No. 32) wo-yao, Lepcha fo, and pu, wu, &c., in a considerable number of Tibeto-Burman dialects) has been mentioned elsewhere (JRAS. 1939, pp. 215–16): it is to be seen in:

śi-hchos-re-ge-hpu-myi-ldin ||, 160 'Born in winter, a bird does not fly'.

But Tibetan phu, 'elder brother' (= Hsi-hsia phu/pho/phoh), bu, 'child', phu, 'upper country', phu (hbud), 'blow the fire', not to mention Hsi-hsia wu, 'father', &c., and the possibilities connected with bu, warn us to expect other significations of Nam hpu, which it is advisable to reserve for a separate consideration.

A form hpo/hpho, 'male', 'heroic', which in Tibetan is usual and gave rise to the masculine suffix po, seems clear in:

hpo-hldah-stor-[re]-hrah-hton-gsohu || dze-rñe-ge-hgo || 358 'the heroic ones being lost, over the station-abandoning survivors the evil are head'.

The same must be recognized in:

hpo-hldi-nan-re-hyah-hnehi-hnahd, 115-16

'males being here within, fear (Tib. ya-na p. 191) evaporates' (because, as indicated in the following line, it is too late, the evil being already done: hnahd = hnad, p. 321)

hpho-hldir-htsag-ge-so-hna-hstor, 117
'males' being here collected, the so-hna is lost'

¹ Since, however, bya, bychu, has been given (supra, pp. 131-2) as a Nam word, it is possibly to be distinguished from pu, one of the two as meaning 'fowl'; 'bird' and 'fowl' are often discriminated in Hsi-fan, &c. The distinction of the two forms in Nam may have been originally dialectical.

and hence also in:

rne-hpo-hldo-ge, 177, 'enemies brave' rne-hpo-hne-ge, 361, 'enemies brave, evil'

while in rbyo-po, l. 181, 'rbyo-man', the word approaches the later Tibetan use as a suffix. Whether in hpo(po)-rbom, l. 317, the sense of 'male', 'hero', is present, or there is merely a miswriting of the commoner hbo-bon is not certain. In hpu-hpos, l. 140, the usual hpu(hphu)-hbos, 'big man', is obviously intended: on hbos see infra (pp. 230-1).

Still another word plainly meaning 'male', namely hdzohu/

hjohu, is contrasted with hbri in:

hbri-re-hrdyam-re-hkhah-hldah-hnahghi || hdzohu-ro-hldi-re-hjohu(hdzohu) || hwa-hkah hdzehu-rje-hbro-re-hdzohu-hto-hrun, 137–8.

'All the females being hrdyam, the speakers should have the say (Tib. hag, "voice", "speech"):

This being a place for males, males have to act and speak (?): When a weak (Tib. gze-re) chief flees, one must be a man,'

and this is reinforced by:

hdzohu-hkru-hyog-re . . . hbri-hdzohu-kyim-re, 324-5.

Clearly this hdzohu, hjohu has nothing to do with rdzo = Tib. mdzo, 'the cross between a yak-bull and a cow', which, moreover, seems always to be spelled with r-. But it has also to be distinguished from a hjo/jo, meaning 'chieftain', and from another hjo/hdzo/hdzoho, as well as from a gzo, all which must be discussed infra (pp. 274–5, 334–5).

These groups of words illustrate rather noticeably the multiple meanings which in monosyllabic languages are so commonly found attached to single forms. But they also illustrate the opposite feature, namely plurality of synonyms of common terms. What is the difference between hpu, hpo(hpho), hdzo, all meaning 'male'? Moreover, we shall encounter (p. 238) another word, tsu, having the same sense.

There seems to be no doubt as to the meanings. For hpu external equivalents have been cited, while po/pho, is well known in Tibetan. Hdzo is no less sure: it corresponds to Hsi-hsia bdzo (Nevsky, No. 42 = Laufer, No. 45 tsu-ni, i.e. ni-tsu), Go-lok tcho-mo, Mānyak chhoh, Mu-nia ts'o, and many Lo-lo and Mo-so forms assembled by Laufer. The tsu transcribed by Laufer from Chinese may, if not intended for dzo, be a dialectical variant, corresponding to the tsu of the Nam text.

It may be suggested that strictly dzo denotes 'man', i.e. male human being, while the wider antithesis 'male/female' is represented, as in Tibetan, by pho/mo. Phu in Tibetan properly means 'upper' in a local sense and so is used with the meaning 'elder', as antithetic to nu, 'younger': it is perhaps identical in origin with pho, which form is perhaps to be seen in Tib. la-po, 'high pass (or peak)', Nam la-po (infra, p. 269), and certainly in pho-bo, = phu-bo, 'elder brother'.

Hpu = bu, 'son', 'child', is supported by antithesis to hpha, 'father', in l. 183, and by connexion with mother in l. 184. It is

also possible, as an alternative to 'man' in:

gsu-prom-hno[-]r[e]-htsah-hpu-hdrom, 64-5

'the friends to give them welcome (gsu-prom) were children and underlings (Tib. drum/druň)'; but 'underling persons' may be meant.

 hho, hhoho; "sta, "sto; "hkhog, "hkhob; "hdah, wa-hdah; rhe, hrhe; gśah, hśah; hśag; hwyir; hdzar; hdza; htrog; hram; mo-lah; byu(r); hrub; skyah.

no, and rne are antithetic in Il. 85-6: hno-sto-ge-hsag-dze-rne-hwe-ge-hwyir || hno-sta-glom-dze-kran-nur-nur rne-sta-glan-dze-hne-rnehi-rnehi

and this is a standing antithesis, as is shown by:

hňo-stor-htoň-re-hrňe-hldaň-hkhyed, 119 hňo-stor-hkhyed-re-hrňe-hldaň-hkhraň so-hnah-hstor-dze-hňo-stor-hprom || hthaň-hrgam-hkad-re-rňe-re-hňo ||, 133

(cf. hrgyań-rhe-re-hnoho ||, 320) hno-stor-hthor-bśi-ta-ston rhe-hldań-hkhar-hmye-htah-rgyen

. . . hňoho-hjam-re-hldan . . . rňe-hdzam-re-hldan

stań-hro-hra-dze-hrnehe-hno-ge-hpom ||, 347 hrne-hno-hdzar-dze-hldehe-ge-htah-hldon ||, 372.

The same antithesis can be traced in ll. 56, 143-4.

But hho is also antithetic to gśań in:
gśań-ra-gśań-na-gśań-tah-hrtehu || } 264-5
hho-ra-hhon-kya-hhon-ta-gblań |
gśań-ra-gśań-ge-gśań-htag-htos
hho-rah-hho-kya-hho-htag-htona || } 278-80
gśań-hrah-hton-kya-hhoho-hjam-re-hldan, 273

and this is quite decisive. For gśań, hśań cannot mean anything but 'enmity', 'hate', as will be shown infra (p. 223).

In Tibetan no means 'face', and it has many compounds and also derivative senses, e.g. 'person', 'public', &c. But the form of the suffix sto points, as has been explained supra (p. 185), to a word ending in s; and we have the likewise common word nos, 'side', so that nos-(s)to would mean 'those on one's side': cf. Tibetan nos-rgyud, 'personally', nos-zin, 'selfish', nos-lon, 'self-interested'. Rne is attested regionally¹ in the sense of 'fiend', and we see the appropriateness of the expression (ll. 119, 127) rne-hldan, 'fiend (enemy)-rise', since in Tibetan ldan, lan is the regular term for the 'rising', appearing, of a fiend. This gives us:

rhe-re-hho,² 133 (hhoho, 320) = 'enemies are friends'. hhoho-hjam . . . rhe-hdzam (= hjam) = 'friends mild . . . enemies [become] mild',

and since hsag can be = Tib. sags 'talk', and hwyir = Tib. hbyer, 'escape',

hno-sto-ge-hśag-dze-rne-hwe-ge-hwyir ||, 85 = 'while friends talk,3 those who do enmity escape'.

The passage:

hrne-hno-hdzar-dze, 372,

where hdzar can phonologically be = Tib. hjar, 'stick together' (see S. C. Das's Dictionary and infra, p. 248)—so that the sense will be:

'when foes and friends cohere':

brings in further expressions for 'friend' and 'enemy', with confirmation in regard to hdzar. For in 1.376 we have

hdza-htrog-hram-hdzar,

which conveys the same sense: hram, which might correspond to Tibetan ran, 'right', 'proper' (though another explanation is probable), certainly recurs in the Nam text with the signification 'agreeable' or the like, and hdza is the inevitable Nam equivalent of Tib. mdzah, 'amicable', 'affection', 'friendship': while htrog, whether connected with Tib. hdrog, 'wince', 'shudder' (dr and tr being in the manuscript practically interchangeable) or a form of the celebrated Central Asian word drug, can independently be shown (in Il. 146, 326, 338) to mean 'enmity' or 'enemy'.

In the Tibetan MSS.

In the Berlin fragment (l. 22) we find the phrase no-re-rise.

Apparently antithetic to hio-sto-ge-rdo-re, l. 84, 'when friends dare' (Tib. sdo, as on p. 296).

Nothing, of course, prevents the recognition of hho in the sense of 'face': and this sense is apparent in the expressions hho-hkhog (ll. 251, 341), which may be = Tib. ho-lkog, 'openly and secretly', and hho-hkhob = Tib. ho-khob, 'conceal face'; it is also conspicuous in the line:

hrta-wa-hdań-dze-hńo-hdań-prom, 258

'the horses upon [their companions'] necks made a facerest (hho-hdah)';

for this action of horses in company is mentioned in one of the Tibetan texts, and wa-hdan may very possibly mean 'neck', being equivalent to Hsi-hsia o(wo, no)-din (Laufer, No. 106) = Tib. o-ldon, ho-don, 'windpipe'.

With the original signification of Tib. nos, 'side', 'direction',

we have:

mo-lan-byu[r]-re-hldi-hdah-ma-ge-hno-bro-hrub-re-myaggre-skyan, 108-9

'the wretched lone females who are here, rushing in flight in (all) directions, need protection from the vile (?) bears'

(mo-la \hat{n} = Tib. mo-ra \hat{n} , 'lone female'; byu[r] = Tib. byur, 'wretched'; bro = Tib. hbro(s), 'flee', $\hat{n}o-bro$ = Tib. $\hat{n}os-\hat{s}or$, 'flee into space (?)', 'disappear'; hrub = Tib. rub, 'rush in a body'; $skya\hat{n}$ = Tib. $skyo\hat{n}$, $bskyo\hat{n}s$, $bskya\hat{n}$, 'protect',—the last three recurrent in the Nam text).

The 'lone females' in the case are mares, and the danger to them from bears is illustrated by the incident related in Filchner, Das Rätsel des Matschü, pp. 85, 92.

Also the phrase hri-hno, I. 299, will mean simply 'mountain side'.

4. ne; ñe, ñes, rñe; gśań, hśań; hśań-ma.

The occurrences of this group are somewhat akin to, and intermingled with, those of no/rne. For we find the above-cited:

rne-sta-glan-dze-hne-rnehi-rnehi, 86

and also

hlo-ge-blah-hldo-ge-na-rñe-ne, 154 hrñe-gsañ-hgre-dze-ñe-hkyeb-hkyeb, 16–17 hsah-yer-hldañ-dze-hrñe-hldañ-ne, 141 hce-hmu-gdag-re-rñye (= rñe)-ne-hñohu, 206

and we further find $r\tilde{n}e$ associated with htrog in :

trog bjo-rñe-dze, 201.

But the association within the group is constant: together we find ne and $\tilde{n}e/r\tilde{n}e$ in:

rñe-hre-hrmag-dze, 146 rñe-ne-g-ri-dze, 301 hce-hmu-gdag-re-rñe-ne-hrehi, 200 (cf. l. 206, supra) trog-hjo-rñe-dze-pyi-rjes-ne-hcer, 201–2 sñañ-ñe[-]ne-hldir, 328;

and there are parallel expressions: sñin-ñe, 149 = sñan-ñe, 229 sñan-ne, 66, 160.

It is apparent that between $\tilde{n}e$ and $r\tilde{n}e$ there is no real difference, $r\tilde{n}e$ having merely a Prefixed r, as in rmyi, 'man', and other cases: there may have been originally a difference to the extent that $r\tilde{n}e$ may have been deverbal (see pp. 300–1).

In Tibetan nes is the ordinary expression for 'evil', 'misfortune', 'offence', 'crime'; and it also exists as a verb with corresponding senses. Probably it is an Aorist form of a ne contained in nen, 'danger', 'enemy', 'pressure', 'drudgery', ner, 'affliction', &c. In the Nam text the form nes is in fact always a Predicate and may be Aoristic in:

hkhar-hgyi-ñes, 192 hke-hkah-ñes-re, 152-3, 158.

That the most usual form, rne, means 'evil', generally 'offence', is almost too clear to need demonstration. The simplest proof is the recurrent expression rne-hlad, 'requital of evil', in Il. 230-9: it is associated with occurrences of gse-hlad, 'requital of injury', in Il. 240-4.

From this it follows that the antithetic word ne means 'good', so that:

sñań (sñiń)-ñe = 'evil-hearted' sñań-ne = 'good-hearted'

sñan-ñe[-]ne-hldir = 'in this case of evil-hearted and goodhearted'

and hce-hmu-gdag-re-rue-ne-hrehi, 1. 200, means:

'having taken on the great cold (sc. death), evil are good'.

The association with *rhe*, 'fiend', 'enemy', in ll. 86, 155, &c., is likewise highly apposite, e.g. in:

hlo-ge-blah-hldo-ge-na-rne-ne, 154-5

'in the companies on high (sc. in heaven) fiends (enemies) are good (sc. no longer enemies)'. In Tibetan ne does not exist with this signification. But the word may be identical with Thöchū nāi, Gyārūng ka-snē, which have many cognates in Tibeto-Burman (Linguistic Survey of India, I. ii, 'Comparative Vocabularies', pp. 196-7). In view of the Ch'iang sentiment mentioned supra (p. 30), it seems possible that the word is ultimately identical with Tib. ne/nehu, Nam nehu, 'young'.

Here we may mention the proof that $g\acute{s}a\grave{n}/h\acute{s}a\grave{n}$, signifies, as noted above (p. 220), 'enmity', 'hate'. This results from the expression $h\acute{s}a\grave{n}$ -hlad, which in Il. 225–7 recurs as practically synonymous with $r\~{n}e$ -hlad and gse-hlad, wherewith it is associated. This $g\acute{s}a\grave{n}/h\acute{s}a\grave{n}$ is found as $\acute{s}a\grave{n}$ in the Tibetan manuscripts, in the phrase $\acute{s}a\grave{n}$ -hthab, 'fight as foes' (supra, p. 180). It is perhaps identical with the $h\acute{s}a\~{n}$ -ma, 'filth', which occurs in Il. 15, 51, and also in the Berlin fragment (l. 5); this also exists in Tibetan, as $g\acute{s}a\~{n}$ -ba, $b\acute{s}a\~{n}$ -ba, 'ordure', &c. It may be suspected, further, that a Tibetan expression for revenge, viz. $\acute{s}a$ -lan, was originally not 'flesh' ($\acute{s}a$)- requital', but an equivalent of the Nam $h\acute{s}a\~{n}$ -hlad.

The other occurrences of hśań/gśań, and especially those cited supra (p. 219), accord with the signification 'enmity', 'hate'.

klu, hklu; meḥi-klu; śes, hśes; hbeg; śe, hśe, gśe; hpaḥ; sron.

Klu and ses are associated antithetically in: ses-hkeg-hrko-hge-hklu-hprah-hyuhu ||, 332 klu-htah-rgyohon-re-hses-ta-hrgyon ||, 336 hko-rno-klu-re-rne-hne-hses, 342-3.

In the Nam language, as we have learned from the contemporary testimony of Tibetan translators of the same region (see supra, p. 131), the word kru signified 'blind'; and in our text the actual name Mye-kru, wherein the word was given that meaning, is certainly reproduced in the form mehi(hmehi)-klu. Moreover, the same signification results from the antithesis in the line:

klu-hrto-htsa-ge-h\u00e9es-hbeg-mehi ||, 24-5 'blind rocks, H\u00e9es-hbeg their eye'.

In Tibetan ses is 'know', 'knowledge', 'intelligence', 'wisdom'; and this, rather than bses, 'friendly', 'friend', 'relative' (which, however, should represent the same root), is obviously what is required as antithetic to 'blind' (physical or mental). Moreover, in Hsi-hsia 'wise' is sie (Chinese transcription; Laufer, No. 165; in Tibetan writing gse/gseh/ze, 'know', 'recognize', gseh, 'wisdom', Nevsky, Nos. 10, 215), the s being perhaps due to confusion with

se/gseh, 'pure', 'clear' (Nevsky, No. 48) = Tib. sel/gsal, 'purify', 'clear': in Mo-so, 'know' is sse (J. Bacot, Les Mo-so, p. 50). The Tibetan ses is probably, like nes, &c., an Aorist form, of a prior se.

In regard to the name of the divinity (p. 138) Hées-hbeg it will be observed that the first monosyllable of his name is clearly indicated as = śes, 'wise', by the relation to klu in the above-quoted ll. 24-5, and probably also in l. 5, klu-ge-hwan . . . hées-beg-

hyan.

nor, hnor; hdzaň; hśehe.

In Tibetan nor means 'err', 'error', and mdzańs 'wise', and the latter is often in the Tibetan manuscripts spelled hdzańs. It is a fact, though of no significance here, that nor commonly means also 'wealth', 'property' (esp. 'cattle'); and hdzańs is stated to mean:

(a) 'avaricious in the acquiring or hoarding of wealth' and
(b) with nor, 'spent', 'consumed'.

Hnor and hdzan, in the sense of 'foolish' and 'wise', are associated in:

g-rah-hsah-hkhehe || na || hnor-hdzań-rgo-htoho || rgo-hrah-hnor-[re-]hdzań-hyah-htoho ||, 314–15

'In an enemy's winning the land (or In winning an enemy land) fool and wise man are the gate:

If the gate-ward is a fool, the wise is antagonized.'

po-rbom-hnor-[re-]hldog-g-yah-to, 317.

'If a big man, being a fool, is antagonized',

and the same meaning of hnor is apparent in l. 366, also in l. 163, where it is contrasted with hiehe, 'wise'; and it can be seen in l. 192. Hdzan, 'wise', is recognized in ll. 142, 318, from contrast

with mor, 'evil', and in ll. 18, 42, 44, 285, through other indications: in l. 269 it is associated with ne, 'good'.

These facts do not preclude the recognition of nor = 'wealth', 'property', in l. 151, or, possibly, of hdzan, 'spent', 'paid', in ll. 232-4.

 śid, hśid; hpag, rpag, hrpag; hśi; hkhur; hśi, śi, gśi, bśi; brom, hkri, hpo, hwa, rgo; hśi-kyeg.

Śid in Tibetan denotes a 'funeral ceremony', and śid-sa a 'burying-ground' and a 'fruitful field': the form gśid also is known. A connexion with śi, 'die', which has in Tibeto-Burman numerous cognates, is apparent.

But in one of 'the Tibetan manuscripts' śid occurs in the sense of 'high', śid-rabs, 'high race' (= Tib. ya-rabs), being contrasted with hbran-rabs, 'race of commons', and the term is used also in a local sense. Śi, too, occurs in the Locative form śir with the same signification.

Tibetan dpag means 'measure', dpags 'depth', and the latter is to be recognized also in dpag-bsam, 'thought', 'imagination': the root appears, further, in dpag/dpag/dpags, 'to measure, fix'.

In the Nam text, Il. 230-1, hid and hrpag are antithetic in appli ation to hwa-bžer (a 'fort'?):

hwa-bżer-hśid-re-hrtah-hrań-glyań hwa-bżer-hrpag-re-rñe-hlad-hbyam ||.

When we find, further, the repeated phrase \$id-g-ri ll. 34, 62 (h\$id-hrihi), '\$id mountain', we can have no doubt that the meaning of \$id, h\$id is, as in Tibetan, 'high'; and we have no difficulty in recognizing the same in:

hwam-hśid, 11, 'high mansion' hdzon-hyo-hśid, 356, where hdzon = 'castle'

while l. 194 hrdzon-hyo-hśi either has a miswriting for hśid or contains the shorter equivalent hśi. In hkhu-tsa-śid-re, l. 60, 'if the uncles are high', the height is social, as in Tib. śid-rabs, and in hbrad-sta-hśid-re, l. 306, 'clawings are high', the sense is that animals with claws have a superiority. The combination śid-rgyań, 'high vast', is very aptly applied in ll. 151, 155 to hnom, 'enjoyment', and 'hope (?)'

Hrpag, which would be the regular Nam equivalent of Tib. dpag, must in the passage quoted mean 'low' or 'brought low'. The same sense is clearly apposite where the epithet is attached to hkhar (Tib. mkhar, hkhar), 'city', 'citadel' (ll. 17, 128, 135, 192)

(hkar): see infra, p. 242), to hkan-hcig, 'house ruined' (l. 208), to hcan, 'city' (l. 210), and also to the occupants of a dwelling-place, hnah-htsu and 'mo (l. 193), gso-nad (l. 194), with whom we may associate the sky-people, hran-hldah-hnam-hge, who in l. 6 have their bodies 'bowed low (downwards)', hrpag-hkhur-hskuhu (Tib. dgur/rgur/sgur (manuscripts also skur), 'bent', 'crookback'), and also the 'great yak' in l. 223. Ban in ll. 252-3 may be left aside pending a determination of its meaning; and there remain only rne-hlad, 'requital of evil' (l. 239), and gse-lad, 'requital of harm', where the sense may be rather that of 'deep', or 'fixed'.

Since in dpag/rpag, the d/r is a Prefix, it is consistent to find a form hpag, with similar signification, attached to hhah, 'home' (II. 326, 328), khar (?) 1. 377, and in:

hrsehi-hpag-slog-dze, 384-5, 'the peaks being become low again'.

We shall not be surprised to find in the Nam text the alternative sense, 'die', 'perish', of Tib. \$i/\$id: and this will be made manifest in regard to sid with hlduhu (p. 322), gldag (p. 317), so-na (p. 293), and rgon-wa (p. 332); as concerns \$i, h\$i, g\$i, we find, beside the ordinary use as a Predicate with or without an Auxiliary Verb (Il. 44, 47, 153, 344, 345), also the Preterite derivates bsi-ta, 'dead' (l. 196), bśi-re, 'having died' (l. 198), and the phrases gśi-brom (I. 72), 'nipped by death', hśi-hkri (II. 38, 81), 'death couch', hśi-hpo (l. 47), 'pass away in death' (Tib. śi-hpho), hśi-hwa (l. 123), 'power (?) of death', śi-rgo (l. 120), 'gate of death', hśi-hrog (l. 17)(?). In hśi-kyeg-mye (l. 102), applied to a defeated army, the meaning, 'death-congealed-fire', has an unmistakable side allusion to (h)si, 'winter' (l. 160), for which evidence has been proffered in JRAS. 1939, p. 215, and supra, pp. 145-6; for in one of the Tibetan manuscripts the expression dgun-cin-khyags combines with the same Verb (khyag, 'frozen', 'ice') the Tibetan equivalent, dgun, of hsi, 'winter'.

 hyah, g-yah, g-yar; hmah, rmah, rmad, smad, hmad; hdad, hdahd.

The antithesis 'upper and lower', in various applications and with various derivative forms (ya, yar, yas, yan, ma, mar, mas, man), pervades in part the Tibetan use of the stems ya and ma. A form of ma with Prefix r is to be expected in the east and northeast (see pp. 94–5, 166 and cf. pp. 351–2); and from ma, 'not', a

¹ Cf. khan . . . béigs in Tibetan Literary Texts, &c., ii, p. 149. 9.

form rma is actually found in one of the Tibetan manuscripts. An s-form, smad, has in ordinary Tibetan the meanings 'lower', 'later', 'downwards', 'blame', 'contempt', 'to lower, abuse, degrade, dishonour'.

Correspondingly the Nam text contrasts hyah and hmah, rmah in

hmah-hldan-hyah-dze, 112, 'when low rises high' hyah-rmah-htsagna, 257, 'high and low are combined' hyah-htan-rma[-]r[e], 315, 318, 'when high authority becomes low'.

The last example enables us to recognize the meaning of hyah(g-yah)-hthah, '[of] superior authority', in the instances (ll. 285-8) where it recurs without a contrasted hmah; and similarly in the phrase hyah-hdad, ll. 304, 306 (hdahd), in which we may detect an equivalent of Tibetan dad, 'devoted to' (as in nor-dad, 'devoted to wealth', las-dad, 'devoted to work'); the meaning is 'having a feeling of superiority', 'self-confident', and we can note in both instances the presence of the word hpah(hphah) = Tib. dpah, 'hero', 'brave'. In ll. 266-72 there is a series of parallel occurrences of hyah/g-yah, with either this sense or another to be mentioned infra; and the same is seen in ll. 72, hyah-hrgehe ('high success'), and 136, 294.

In the expression hkhar-hrpag-g-yar-re, Il. 128, 136, the word g-yar has, as is evident from the antithesis to hrpag ('when the low town becomes superior'), the same signification. It is the Locative or Adverbial form = Tib. yar, 'on high'.

The form hmad/rmad/smad, may occur in Il. 36, 37, 39 (seshmad, 'of low intelligence'?) and 202 (hrah-hmad); but in

smyi-hni-hśige-smyi-rmad-ldan, 80

'When a . . . man perishes, an inferior man rises'

hrje-smyi-rmad-ge-hmo-rkah-lda, 84 (cf. 37)

'chiefs who are inferior men, subject to a woman's commands' it is reinforced by a contrast in the actual context.

Several more words ya, g-yah, exist in Tibetan, and with two of these, reflected in the Nam text, we may proceed to deal. Hya, probably = 'sheep' (l. 45), will be mentioned infra (p. 343).

9. hyah, g-yah; hyah-htah, g-yah-ta; g-yah-tsa.

Tibetan ya also means 'an equal', 'a match', and it is used with reference to things occurring in pairs, e.g. kha-ya, 'partner', hthab-ya, 'adversary', ya-po, 'rival', 'adversary', ya-bral, 'without a partner', 'separate', ya-med, 'having no partner', 'single'. This meaning appears clearly in the Nam verse:

ldan-pyer-hgag-re-htsah-hyah-hdo ||, 65

'those prevented from co-operation become rivals (or adversaries)'

and in the parallel verse in l. 67; also in the above (p. 224) explained verse;

rgo-hrah-hnor-[re-]hdzań-hyah-htoho ||, 315.

Whether in Il. 266-72 hyah, g-yah has the sense of 'paired with' or that to be next discussed may be open to doubt. For hyah-htah in Il. 222, 386, g-yah-ta, l. 156, the general notion of 'pair' is probable; but whether hostility or combination is indicated, is not clear. On hyah-hña, 'fear', see supra, p. 217.

The meaning of g-yah in:

g-we-hku-rno-re-g-yah-htsa-ne-ge-gstor-ta-hthon(hthogna), 152

'action-desire (hku)-capable, good adversaries stopped flight' where g-yah-tsa is a quasi-plural of g-yah, seems to fit best under the signification 'adversary'.

10. hyah, g-yah; rgyeb.

A third meaning of Tibetan g-ya, seen in g-yar, 'mouth', 'face and front' (perhaps originally a Locative form), g-yar-tsha = no-tsha, 'face-warmth', i.e. 'shame', 'bashfulness', g-yar-lam, 'front path or side', i.e. 'presence', is, as we see, 'fronting', perhaps the source of the second meaning (= 'confront'). This sense must be seen in the Nam hyah/g-yah, where it is antithetic to rgyeb/hgyeb, as in:

rgyeb-hphuhi-hton-re-hyah-wa-hkan, 190 hyah-hkruhu-hbro-re-hrgyeb-hkruho ||, 315-16 hrgyeb-hkruhu-hbro-re-g-yah-hpan-hwag, 323-4 hyah-hklu(hkru)-hbro-re-hgyeb(hrgyeb)-hkru-hbro-re-hyahhtah-hthan na | : |, 221-2.

For rgyeb, whether with original e (replaced in Tibetan by an Ablaut a) or with secondary e as explained supra (p. 214), is certainly equivalent to Tib. rgyab, 'back' (of the body, &c.), 'rear' (cf. rgyab, 'throw', 'fling', &c.), but also 'to set back', 'repulse'. This appears clearly also in:

ldan-rdze(rje)-hbro-re-hldan-the-rgyebs ||, 138-9

'when a supporting chief flees (Tib. hbros), the supporting followers retreat'.

There exists a curious ambiguity as to the meaning of the expression $hkru \cdot hbro$, which in Il. 221–2 ought to mean 'flees into a corner (Tib. gru)', while in the other two instances, supported also by 1. 190, it seems rather to mean 'has a foul (Tib. dkru, 'dirt', 'filth') savour (Tib. bro)': see pp. 295–7. But this does not invalidate the assurance that in all the above cases hyah/g-yah = 'front' and rgyeb = 'rear'.

It may be noted that, by reason of the standing antithesis, the

missing word in the passage:

hbri-hldi-hthan-re-hre-hldi-hyah hldi-hthan-re-rgyeb-hldi-hthan-ra, 132-3

is, no doubt, a second hyah: a more extended case of similar loss of a repeated word is to be seen in ll. 147-8; see p. 299. It is no objection that the added hyah has the sense No. 3, while the preceding one has perhaps sense No. 1 (antithetic to hbri); for, as we have seen, the monosyllabic languages (as also most natural use of language) are indifferent to such awkwardness, and perhaps the Nam speakers, possibly with etymological right, lumped all the senses of hyah/g-yah roughly together.

11. hnan, nan; hthah; hgran.

The common meaning of Tibetan nan is 'in', 'inside', 'within': but there is also nan/nans, = 'dawn', 'morning', 'to-morrow', and we may add nans, 'escaped' (\sqrt{gnon}), and, for the sake of possible comparison with Nam, gnan/gnans, 'grant', and snan, 'light', 'appearance', 'notion', 'shine'.

In the text the passages (ll. 225, 236, 244, 246), where we

read:

hrah-hldi-hnan-re, 'this place being inside', or 'being in this place'

prove by their mere number that the word hnan is = Tib. nan, 'inside', &c. Hence it is practically certain that the meaning is the same in:

hldi-hgan-nan-re, 104, 'all these being inside' or 'being inside this house (Tib. khan)'

hpo-hldi-nan-re, 115, 'these heroes (or males) being within' gdzu-hbyi-hnan-re-hman-hri-hwas, 308, 'the ass being within [it], the great mountain is non-existent' (similarly in 305, 311).

In 1. 181 nan-gsan has been noted (p. 156) as possibly doubtful,

and nan-pa-hsam in 1. 352 may be left for the present undetermined; as well as hnan-hdro in Il. 188-9 (see p. 285).

Antithesis to hthah can be seen in:

hrtah-nan-hwa[-]r[e]-hthah-hbro-hgran, 354-5

'the horse being powerful (?) within, his adversary (Tib. hgran) was in flight to, or in, the hthah'.

The identity of *hthah* with Tib. *mthah*, 'end', 'boundary', 'frontier', is unmistakable; and perhaps the same will be found to be the case in 1. 362, where *hthah-hrbyo* may prove to be a miswriting of "*hbro*: the manuscript shows, in fact, a correction, probably of *hbyo* into *hbro*.

Another tha will be mentioned infra (p. 237).

hbom, rbom, hrbom; hbo, bon, hbon, hbos, hpos; rbo, hrbo;
 gbohu; ma-man, hmaň; phaň; hrog; hkom; hji.

In l. 238 of the text:

gse-hbo-bon-re-hlad-mah-mahn

'injury being hbo-bon, requital is mah-mahn'

we see an antithesis, repeated in Il. 243, 245, 246, 246–7, between two reduplications, hbo-bon and mah-mahn: and the first of the two can hardly be different in essence from hbom-rbo in:

hso-hnah-hyah-tse-gtah-hbom-rbo

hbom-rbo-phan-dze-hldan-hkran-hnar-re-hbom-rbo-hldah ||, 111-12

hso-ḥnaḥ-ḥyaḥ-[ge-]-ḥbaḥ-ḥbom-rbo ||, 270.

A form rbom/hrbom occurs twice in 1. 317 as a predicate of po, 'man', 'hero'.

Rbom cannot be different from Tib. sbom, 'big', 'bulky', 'size', to which it phonologically corresponds; so that po-rbom means 'big man' and hbom-rbo-phan means 'big lap or bosom' (Tib. pan/phan); cf. Tib. sbo, 'the upper part of the belly' and, perhaps, bon, bons (<bons), buns, 'size', 'bulk'.

It follows from the first quotation that ma-man represents a man, 'great', and means 'vast' or 'larger'. This must be = Tib. mañ, 'much', 'many', 'great', 'be much', &c., which in fact is sometimes found written man (Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, pp. 19. 8, 147: B1, 370. D). Indeed it is likely that mañ, like boñ and several other words, derives its ñ from the circumstance that originally it was mañs < man-s, a form existing in Tibetan, e.g. in mañs-tshig, 'plural number'.

Ḥman itself is common in the text, and it obviously means

'great' when applied to 'mountain'; hman-hrihi, ll. 302, 308 (°hri), 308 (g-ri), followed by hman-sta-mehi . . . hri-stah-mehi, l. 311, 'great is not there . . . mountain is not there'. Not less clear is the meaning 'many' in:

hbrad-re-hpah-yan-hman-ge-hrgam-hjihi ||, 305-6

'each clawing creature being brave, that many should form a community is unimportant (Tib. hji, "flea", "no matter", as in the Tib. manuscripts).'

Tibetan sbom is plainly connected with sbo, 'swell up', 'distend' (lto-ba-sbos, 'the belly is swollen'), and the above-mentioned sbo, 'the upper part of the belly': and this sbo is likewise an s-form of hbo, hbos, pho, dbo, 'to pour forth, swell up, rise, sprout (sa-hbo-hdug, "the ground is verdant", "the ground swells, heaves")'. Hence it is evident that in the Nam text in the phrase:

g-rah-g-yo-rbo-ge, 'the earthquake rbo'

the word rbo signifies 'swells up', 'heaves', and is in meaning, as in form, an exact equivalent of Tib. dbo.

This root bo furnishes also another term of great importance in the text, namely bos/hbos (once, l. 141, spelled hpos) = Tib. hbos, Aorist of hbo, also 'boil', 'tumour'. This is applied in ll. 290, 291, 293 to g-ri, hrihi, 'mountain' ('a big mountain'); but its usual connexions are with smyi ('big man'), e.g. ll. 42, 43, [378], and especially with pu/hpuhu/hphu ('male', 'man'), in ll. 41, 167, 266, 293, 330; and several times (ll. 164, 213, 287, 294, 298) hbos alone is used to denote the 'big', the 'master', who is the sole undisguisedly human being figuring in the text.

The Verb hbo in the Tibetan sense of 'pour forth', 'spill out' has already (p. 156) been recognized in the expression:

hlab-ta-gbohu-ste, 'talk bubbling forth', 181; cf. g-rah-naghbo-gyan, p. 313 infra.

Probably also its meaning, 'sprout', accounts for hbo, 'forest', 'vegetation' (Hsi-hsia mo, Laufer, No. 85), which we shall find in

hbo-hkom-hldyań-dze, 12, 'the parched (Tib. skom, skam, &c.), woods flying high'

myag-ma-htsar-dze-hbo-hram-ge-hśodtsa, 280-1

'on the not spoiled districts, or borders, the wood-groups were laid low'

(on htsar and héodtsa see pp. 234, 301)

hbo-hron-hrog-re, 344, 'the wooded gorges being torrents' (Tib. grog).

On hbo in l. 126 see infra, p. 289. The meaning of hldyan-htah-hbokyer, l. 144, is not clear.

13. dgu, dguhu; mu, hmu, hmuhi; hrog, lom; dgu, hgu; hrgu, hgu.

It has already (JRAS, 1939, pp. 211-12) been stated that in the Tibetan manuscripts we have a word dgu, meaning 'hot'. This fact, surprising in view of the circumstance that the Tibetan for 'winter' is dgun, becomes almost beyond belief when we remark that its opposite, mu, will have to mean 'cold'. For in Hsi-hsia 'fire' is dmu/gmuh (Nevsky, No. 149), in Chinese transcription mo (Laufer, No. 36), while the Tibeto-Burman dialects in general are almost unanimous in denoting 'fire' by forms akin to this mo or to Tibetan me (Lolo mu-tu, &c., Mo-so mi, Rgya-ron Hsi-fan te-mi, &c., d'Ollone, Go-lok dialects, 41, 42, mo/mon, &c.). In Nam itself the word for 'fire' is me/sme/mye. The fact, however, is beyond all dispute, since the word occurs in the many times repeated sentence 'To the fiend country of fire not hot (mye-myidgu), water not moist (chu-myi-rlan), I will carry you'. Moreover, the many Tibeto-Burman dialects of the Himālayas and elsewhere, which for 'hot' have words beginning with ku-, lend an aspect to the matter.

The antithesis declares itself prominently in the recurrent (II, 225, 236, 244, 245) phrase:

dgu(dguḥu)-mu-hto-re, 'hot be[com]ing cold'

where the implication is 'living becoming dead'; and an analogous implication (cf. Tib. gron/gran, 'cold' and 'die') is to be seen in

mu-hrog-htro(hdro)-re, 197, 'cold being assisted by heat'

in reference perhaps to burning of the dead. Also in a verse already (p. 222) quoted 'the great cold', *hce-mu*, means, no doubt, death. But the antithesis is envisaged also in l. 309:

dgu-hldo-htor-ge . . . hmu-wa-rno-ge . . .

Independently of antithesis dgu-hlor, 'great heat', is seen in ll. 76, 77, and dgu-hldo, 'heat', in ll. 74, 77, 78, 139, 191; and in l. 114 there is connexion with 'fire' (me):

dgu-hldo-htor-ge-su-me-hmeḥi 'with great heat, who kindles fire?'

mu, likewise, is connected with fire in the phrase me-hmuhi, 'chills the fire', l. 183, and perhaps also in l. 268; in l. 39 hkye-ge-hmu (p. 320) the probable sense, indicated by antithesis to hdar,

'shiver', is 'the children are cold'. Another occurrence of mu, 'cold', is seen in l. 363, mu-lom, 'cold well'(?): in l. 9 it may signify 'sky' (Hsi-fan, &c., mo, mon). The cold is metaphorical, = 'fear', in l. 184: in ll. 104, 116, 352, in connexion with hphu, pu-glo, which contain the idea of 'blowing' (see pp. 284-5), it is again psychical, as is likewise sometimes the case with me, 'fire'.

The meaning 'all' seen in stor-dgu, l. 127, 'all losses or lost things' (see infra, p. 290), and perhaps also in l. 134, is helpful in two ways: firstly, it guarantees the Tibetan idiomatic use of 'nine' (dgu, rgu) for 'all', which is found even in the Tibetan manuscripts, and thus supplies the Nam word for '9'; secondly, the stor-hgu of the preceding l. 126 seems to be the same expression, which shows that in the Nam word for '9' the Prefix d/r might be lacking, as in so many Tibeto-Burman dialects and sometimes in Tibetan itself (go, '90').

The same alternation justifies a recognition of two forms, rgu and hgu, of the word for 'steal', 'thief' (Tib. rku/lku, 'steal', rkun, 'thief', in the Tibetan manuscripts also rgun, Lo-lo khu, &c., Mo-so kö): rgu is seen in hrgu-ma-gzo, l. 165, 'thieves should not eat' (see pp. 199, 335) and in:

rbyo-hee-rgye-dze-hrgu-hrgehi-sto ||, 57-8

'where poultry (error for hbyor, 'store'?) is very extensive, thieves rejoice' (on hrgehi-sto see p. 185 and n. 1)

and perhaps the same signification of rgu/hrgu in ll. 29, 30, 32; hgu in:

hnah-hpon-hgor-re-hgu-htor-htsu, 113
'when the house-dependents are idle, big thieves come'
and in l. 331 hgu-mor can be 'wicked thieves'.

On hgu as a suffix see p. 258.

14. ston, hton; hpon; myen; stsar; htsar, htshar.

Line 247, gse-ston-stsar-re-hlad-hton-myen repeating an antithesis of gse, 'harm', and hlad, 'requital', requires an opposition between ston-stsar and hton-myen, wherein, according to the context, the latter should denote a larger quantity. Ston-stsar calls to mind Tib. ston, 'thousand', and the particle rtsa, whereby ston is usually linked to the following 'hundreds', &c., rtsa being perhaps = rtswa, 'root', though we may suspect that it was once rtsar or stsar, connected with htshar/tshar, 'be finished, spent', 'up to the limit', and tshar, 'occasion', 'instance' (tshar-gnis, 'twice', &c.). However it may be as regards Tibetan rtsa, there is no difficulty

in connecting with this htshar the Nam stsar and attributing to it the sense of 'as much as' or 'only', though it might likewise be a Locative form of rtsa.

The word htsar, instanced p. 231, recurs, as htshar, in

hkan-heig-rpag-re-htshar-hde-hpyedhi, 208

'when a house is laid low in ruin, the parish's prosperity is breached'.

cf. khar (khan?)-hpag-cig-dze, l. 377, hldan-hkhan, 'wooden house' (sc. tomb), l. 198, and khan-rul-sig, 'break down a ruined house' (Tibetan Literary Texts, &c., ii, p. 149. 8). With the meaning 'parish' (Sanskrit sīmā), derived from that of 'boundary', the Tibetan tshar is frequent in the Central-Asian documents (ibid. i, p. 101, n. 5; ii, pp. 169 sqq.).

We are naturally reluctant to find in Nam ston the meaning 'thousand', since we should prefer stom or tom, as nearer to the original, widespread, Central-Asian tom (Mo-so tü, to, tu, Menia ta-to, Lo-lo ta-to, ti-tu, &c.); but that reluctance must yield before the fact that ston-hpon in l. 321 is very probably = Tib. ston-dpon, 'Thousand-[district]-officer', a prominent feature of Central-Asian administration (p. 33, n. 1). If ston was not the proper Nam form, it may have been due to borrowing from Tibetan (whence the s, absent in hton) or to the Tibetan scribe or transmitter.

Proof that $sto\hat{n}$ in the Nam passage means 'thousand' is given by the antithetic myen, for which Tibetan affords no explanation. This will be Chinese wan (Classical $m\bar{a}n$, Ancient $m_i^w pn'$, Japanese ban/man; see Karlgren, No. 1295), 'myriad', preserved in Mo-so as $m\ddot{o}$ and in Lo-lo, perhaps, as [ta]-niai, &c. (ni-< my-). Accordingly the translation of 1. 247 in the Nam text is:

'harms being as many as a thousand, requital is [to be] a thousand myriad.'

Elsewhere hton has a quite different signification (= Tib. gton, 'give up', 'send', &c.); and ston in l. 51 seems to be = Tib. ston, 'empty'.

15. gsom; °sñi; hñi; hsam; hśam; sśam.

Nam gsom has a great chance of being = Tib. gsum/sum, 'three' (so-gcig, 'thirty-one', &c.); for in Tibeto-Burman the numeral 'three' is one of the most uniform, the dialects agreeing in something like sum (also tum), som, so, sam (cf. Hsi-hsia gso, gsoh, gsoh, gswoh, Nevsky, No. 269), Chinese sam, san. The scribe

himself seems to intimate this; for in I. 117 he wrote Tibetan gsum, which was afterwards corrected to gsom.

Nevertheless, the clearest of the occurrences of gsom, namely in gsom-sñi (l. 23) = Tib. som-ñi, 'doubt', presents a different sense; for in som-ñi ('thought-two') som belongs to the root sem, sems, bsam, bsam, Imperative soms, 'think', 'thought', 'mind', a root most widely spread in Tibeto-Burman (including Hsi-hsia sin, 'heart', = Tib. sems, Laufer No. 9, and Mo-so sin(-djre), sen(-djro), sun(-dru), 'think') and shared with Chinese, sin, 'heart', 'thought', &c. (Classical som, Ancient, siom, Karlgren, No. 801). The same signification recurs in:

gsom-wa-hyo(g-yo), 178-9, 'thought wavers'.

The meaning 'three', however, must be admitted in the expression khar-gsom, l. 117, 'three towns', where the scribe at first wrote gsum; for, though we cannot identify the towns, numerical phrases of the same type, 'The Four Garrisons' = Chinese Turkestan, 'The Six Cities' = Khotan, &c., were usual in Central Asia, and one of the Tibetan manuscripts has 'The Twelve Cities', 'The Eight Snam', &c. In htsa-gsom, l. 21, also we may find 'the three roots or grasses or crops (Tib. rtsa or rtsua or btsa)', analogous to the above (p. 39) cited 'five cereals' of the Chinese descriptions; and in l. 10 hlah-gsom may be 'the three passes (Tib. la)'. In ll. 89 (gsom-rgyag 'form a thought', pp. 258-9), 198 (hdi-gsom, 'this thought'), 206 (tshu-gsom, 'the thought of coming'), we have again gsom, 'think'.

But gsom-sni, though not containing the numeral 'three', certainly reveals sni as = 'two', Tibetan gnis/nis, Hsi-hsia gni/gnih (Nevsky, No. 75). This sni does not otherwise occur in the Nam text, and it is possible that an s-less form is present in the expression rgya-hni (gni)-ke, concerning which see p. 272.

A cognate of gsom, 'think', is probably to be seen in hsam (Tib. bsam), ll. 185, 352, but not in hsam, l. 184, where me-hsam, 'prepared fire', antithetic to the above (p. 232) cited me-hmuhi, is probably for hsam (Tib. som, gsom, bsam, bsams, 'prepare', 'arrange', &c). Ssam, l. 255, and hsam, l. 277, are problematical.

16. hti; hgye; hkrom-hkrom.

In Il. 12-13 and 154:

gňim-hti-hldyań-[ge? dze?-]hgye-hkrom-hkrom, 12-13 hti-rgye-mye-dze-hgye-hkrom-hkrom ||, 154

hti and hgye seem to be contrasted. If hgye = Tib. hgye, 'light',

given as a synonym of hod, and perhaps, by reason of its rarity, an actual loan from Nam, it will harmonize with hkrom-hkrom, a reduplicated expression which may correspond to Tib. khrom-me, 'sparkling', 'glittering': in fact, the harmony may be etymologically very complete, if hgye, on the one hand, is connected with hgye, hgyed, 'scatter', 'diffuse', &c. (e.g. rays of light), and hkrom with hgrem, bkram, dgram, khroms, 'spread', 'scatter', 'display', khram, 'lively', 'brisk', both roots being otherwise also prominent in the text.

This being so, $\hbar ti$ might well mean 'darkness', which will accord with Tib. gti-mug, 'gloom', 'ignorance', 'stupidity', and further with $g\tilde{n}im$, in the first verse cited, which will be = Tib. $\tilde{n}in$, 'day' (cf. $\tilde{n}i/g\tilde{n}i$, 'sun'). The two verses may then be rendered as follows:

'day-darkness rising, the light flickered, flickered', 12–13
'where extensive darkness is not, the light flickers, flickers',
154.

In 1. 385:

hrne-hrom-ge-hti-na-hrne-ge-hrlomhi | : |

'in the fiend-hollow darkness, let the fiends vaunt themselves will likewise fit.

Since Tibetan has a sti, hthi, meaning (a) 'take a rest', (b) 'honour', 'respect', and Hsi-hsia a sti meaning 'obey', 'possible' (Nevsky, No. 235), these also are conceivable in Nam; and the first may actually occur in:

myi-re-hti-ni-myi-[re-]hśi ||, 154

'when men severally stop (in flight), severally the men perish', a passage curiously adjacent, however, to l. 154, with hti = 'light'. Concerning sku-hphu-hti, l. 104, and hgru-ma-hti, l. 27, see pp. 285, 309.

smyi, myi; tha; ḥnu; ḥśig; ḥrgyañ.

The first two of these, where not identifiable with Tib. mi/myi, 'not', might very well be = Tib. mi/myi, 'man' (homo), more especially as this sometimes (Hsi-hsia rme (Nevsky, No. 39), Gyārūng ti-rmi, &c.; see p. 94) has a Prefix r. One instance of myi = 'man' (l. 154) has just been cited; but it may be doubted whether there are any more. In regard to smyi there can be no question that in htor-smyi-hbom-ge, l. 73 ('great smyi, big'), bos-smyi, ll. 42, 44 ('big smyi', 'master')—see the discussion of hbom supra—smyi signifies 'man'; and the same is apparent in:

rje-smyi-rmad-ge, 37, 84, 'chiefs who are inferior men' (on rmad see supra, p. 227)

smyi-hni-hśig[-g]e-smyi-rmad (smad?)-ldan, 87

'when a hni man perishes (Tib. hjig, bžig, gžig, šig), an inferior man rises'.

But it is in Il. 241-2:

smyi-hnu-mye-re-tha-hnu-hrgyan-sto-smyi-hnu-hto || that we find the most useful confirmation, the meaning being:

'if man's power (Tib. nus, "able", "ability", "power") is not, tha power coming in haste (Tib. rgyans) or being extended or extensive (rgyan), man has power.'

Here tha must mean 'god'; and this may be the origin of Hsi-hsia tha, 'Buddha' (Nevsky, No. 105), Hsi-hsia Buddhism being late. There is no temptation to derive tha = 'Buddha' from tha/thah, 'he', 'it' (Nevsky, Nos. 71, 225), or to regard it as a remnant of tathā-gata: it must correspond to Tibetan Iha, 'god'. The problem of Tibetan Ih has been mentioned supra (p. 214, cf. infra, p. 286). In 'Tangut' 'god' is skha, 'boot' (Tib. Iham) is kham; and we learn from Dr. Tafel (Meine Tibetreise, ii, p. 32, n. 3) that:

'In the whole of North-Tibet, among the Banag-kaksum of the Koko-nor region as in Amdo, Lhasa, which notoriously is compounded of Lha = "god" and sa = "land", "place", is not pronounced as usual with l and a following h, but like English th, followed by an h.' If this was in Amdo an ancient pronunciation of lha, we understand the name of the city Tamo ('Goddess')-mên, stated in the T'ang Annals (JRAS, 1880, pp. 463, 473¹) to have been built by the Tibetans in the Koko-nor region. Visible from Hsi-ning, and situated some eight or nine miles south of Lusar (Rockhill, The Land of the Lamas, p. 94, n. 1), are the three peaks of the 'Lh'amo-ri', which surely must be connected with the pass 'called in Tibetan Ta-mo-ri' (Rockhill Diary, p. 108), which 'leads [from Lusar] into a valley at the mouth of which is . . . Shara-kuto'. In ordinary Tibetan also the verb ltuh, 'fall', has for Preterite lhuh.

18. (1) hnah, gnah, hna, na; (2) hnah, hna, na; (3) hnah, na;

1 Mentioned in connexion with Hung-chi (NW. of Ho-chou, with a

bridge over the Hoang-ho), Bushell, p. 534 (72).

² Similarly Dr. Tafel mentions (ii, p. 298) a 'Lhamo gomba' (monastery) in the T'ao-chou region, always known as Thamo or Tamo, the natives pronouncing every *lh* as English *th* or *t*, and speaking of Lha-sa, for instance, as *T'asa*.

hàah, àah;
 hàah;
 htsu;
 mo;
 hmo;
 gso,
 hson;
 nad;
 hsas,
 gsas;
 pa;
 hyan;
 khyan;
 khyos;
 hzah.

It is clear in Il. 99, 101-2

rgyed-ma-glan (102 hldan)-ge-hnah (102 nah)-htsog-hśah (102 hśas)

that hnah and hah are confused; and confusion of n and h has been noted (p. 214) as occurring in Amdoan Tibetan. Hnah is certainly = Tib. gnah, 'place'; cf. l. 69 hphag-la-gnah, 'a place for the hog' &c., l. 391 hnah-hdihi-htshur, 'come to this place', the Prefixes g and h alternating frequently, as we are already aware, in the text. Hñah does not occur, though on the analogy of Hsi-hsia ne, 'king', $neh/\tilde{n}eh$ = Tib. rje, and Gyärüng $ka-n\tilde{e}s$, Tākpa nai, Mānyak $n\tilde{a}(-bi)$, 'two', and various other instances in Hsi-fan and Tibeto-Burman, we should be fully prepared for confusion of \tilde{n} -also with n- and \hat{n} -.\frac{1}{2}

In the case of hnah-htsu/hnah-mo such confusion is specially clear; for Hsi-fan (d'Ollone, Nos. 37 and 40, p. 79) na-mo, 'woman', is plainly = Tib. na-ma, 'housewife', 'mistress of a house'. That Nam hnah-mo is the same word is proved by the antithesis to hnah-htsu in:

hnah-htsu-rpag-re-hnah-mo-hgam ||
hnah-mo-hrpag-[re-]-gso-nad-hgam
gso-nad-rpag-re-hkah-hgan-hjor, 193-4
'If the hnah-htsu is brought low, the hnah-mo is the hgam;
if the hnah-mo is brought low, the gso-nad is the hgam;
if the gso-nad is brought low, (all talk is babble).'

For in this connexion htsu must be equivalent to Hsi-hsia ni+tsu (i.e. dzu), bdzo, concerning which see supra (p. 218). The same word (=vir) may perhaps be detected in the title (chin(=khyim?)-tsu), as given by the Chinese (Rockhill, $The\ Land\ of\ the\ Lamas$, p. 339), of the queen's consort in the 'Women's Kingdom'.

We may infer that confusion between hnah and hnah was not merely phonetic, but due in part to coincidence of the ideas of 'place' and 'home'. Hnah/na, which seems to be the more common, appears in:

hna-hlam-glo-hran, 68, 'the home path is joyful' na-hldom-hgor, 41, 143, 350, 'if the house-servants are idle' hnah-hpon-hgor, 113, 'if the house-poor (na-bon of the Tibetan manuscripts) are idle'

See infra, p. 360.

na-g-we-hkor, 205, 'if there is idleness in home-making' hphu-hklo-hsad-dze-hnah-me-hmyi ||, 40, 'if the hphu-hklo (see infra, p. 284) is destroyed, house-fire there is not'.

In other instances (II. 56, 96, 280 (gnah)), though only 'place' is said, the idea may be that of home: elsewhere (II. 191, 391, hnah; II. 69, 70, 179, 367, gnah) 'place' suffices. Hnah is seen in:

hnah-hpag-hldir, 326, 328, 'in this low place' and together we find hnah and na in:

hnah-na-hman-na-hman-hrgam-gre-na-hram ||, 307 'though [their] home-places are many, the place they like is where many gre are in company'.

An entirely different hhah = Hsi-hsia dhah (Nevsky, No. 159), 'empty', 'sky', occurs several times after re, 'is', forming an idiom with the meaning 'absence of', 'there is absence of', e.g. in:

mor-hldan-re-hnah ||, 87, 'there is no rising of evil' hkyan-hldon-re-hnah ||, 291, 'there are no run-away hkyan' hrno-hean-hram-dze-gśe-hrdzro (i.e. hrdzo-re)-hnah ||, 49 hrno-hpran-hram-dze-hśehe-rdzor (i.e. rdzo-re)-hnah, 368-9 'where the power (or purpose)-violent are united, wise rdzo are not there'.

Tibetan has, further, na (a Postposition), 'in', &c., gnah(-ma) 'old', na, 'meadow', and na, 'sickness'. Of these na, 'in', &c., as recurrent in the Nam text, has been considered supra (pp. 178 sqq.). Gnah, 'old', is at present problematic. Na, 'meadow', is perhaps to be recognized in na-htsah-ste, ll. 33-4: see p. 275, cf. pp. 278, 281). Na, 'sickness', is to be seen in:

na-rog-hphar-ge-skye-ta-ram, 156-7
'the black (? Tib. rog) sickness passed, life is agreeable'
htsog-hram-hnah-tse, 120 (see infra, pp. 291-2)
hsas-hnah-hdag-chi-phyer-chan-hson ||, 260-1
'children who had sickness were, with support-hold, tended'
hldyo-htor-hmyi-na, 254 (see p. 328).

The phyer-chan of the last passage will call for consideration later (pp. 283, 287). Hson will be = Tib. gson/gso, 'tend', 'nurse'. Hsas, which in the preceding verse has the same form, shows in:

gsas-paḥi-ḥdzo-ḥdza, 262, 'children equal to braves (pa = ḥpaḥ, Tib. dpaḥ) or to their fathers (pha, ḥphaḥ)'

the common \hbar/g alternation. The word is known in Tibetan as designation of a class of Bon divinities, and the meaning 'children'

is established by the phrase pha-mes-gsas, 'father, grandfather, children', in another text: it is, no doubt, Preterite, Tib. btsas, of btsa, 'bring forth a child' (cf. btsa, btsas, rtsas, 'harvest'): as regards the initial cf. se/hse/gse = Tib. gtse, htshe, and se/hse/rse = Tib. rtse. The verbal sense is clear in:

hsas-te-khyan-je(dze)-hsas-hkhah-ge-hrwehi ||, 116

'when the matron has given birth, talk of the birth is at an end' (sc. it is too late, a sense in harmony with the context).

'Offspring' is the meaning in:

hsas-hce-rgye-dze-hrań-hgam-hyim, 59.

'with offspring very numerous one's own mouthful (Tib. hgam/hkham, "cram into the mouth", bgam, "gobble", kham-gcig, "morsel", khams, "appetite") is diminished.'

Khyan, 'matron', is clearly recognizable in:

khyos-hkhyan-hyu-ge-mye-hpehi-hkhehi ||, 212

'matrons united (cf. Tib. yug, yug-po, yugs) with their husbands (Tib. khyo) gain eye-sparkle (?)'

a sentiment echoed in the Tibetan manuscripts by 'a wife partnered by her husband smiles at every speech'. The sentiment is different in:

hmo[-]r[e]-hzah-re-hse-spye-khyan ||, 190 'woman or wife, a matron is a summer of harm'

and in l. 367 we hear of a hśań-khyań, 'hostile matron'. What is the precise signification of khyań as distinguished from hmo, 'woman', 'female' (see supra, p. 221) and hzah, Tib. bzah, 'wife'? Here we may be helped by Laufer's (No. 153) Hsi-hsia choń, 'mother'. We can see that the sense of 'matron', 'mother', well suits the passages, especially l. 116 and also, with reference to what in Sanskrit is called dohada, l. 190. The word khyań is not known in Tibetan, which, however, in its hkhyeń, hkheńs, 'be filled up', cf. hgeńs, bkań, dgań, khoń, 'fill', gań, 'fill', 'full', furnishes a good basis for an etymology.

We may now return to the gso-nad of Il. 193-4. It might seem possible that the gso-nad, who are left when the men and women of the place are laid low, are the 'living sick', Tib. gson 'live', 'life', +nad 'sickness'. The Tibetan has, in fact, the expression

1 Khyehu (or bu)-bisas, 'a child (or son) was born'. The form tshas occurs with the meaning 'woman in child-birth'.

³ In Tibetan rj, rts, rdz, are often pronounced as simply j, s, z, (Jaeschke, Tib. Grammar, § 7).

nad-gso, 'sickness-tending'; but the order of the syllables in the compound could not be inverted, and the gso is the word which means 'feed', 'nourish', 'rear', 'cure', e.g. in hdud-hgro-gso-ba, 'rear an animal'. In the Nam phrase:

nor-gso-hkan-prom-re, 151, 'having their fill of wealth and aso [as bootv]'

we may understand qso as 'livestock', in which case nad will have nothing to do with 'sickness' and may be = Tib. gnad, 'essence', 'pith', in the sense of 'last remainder'. The other occurrence of hnad (l. 46) is, however, obscure.

The liberal choice of significations presented by the syllables na and na, with their various written forms, would not be fully stated without a mention of hnah, 'spring' in hnah-hchos-hre-ge, 1. 159 (see JRAS, 1939, p. 215, cf. supra, p. 145) and na in na-hke, perhaps = 'five' (cf. hñi-ke, p. 272). No equivalent of Tib. na, 'I', has come to light.

19. hdzon, hrdzon; hke, khe, hkhe, hkhehe; plan, hplan, phlan; hdrah, hdra; byo-hśi; hgam, hrgam; can; hthan; gdah; hrgom; hdro; we, wehi; hnor; hwam; hlda-hko; hldihi; rma; htharmye; kyim, hkyim, gyim.

The above-quoted passage, concerning 'house-man', 'housewife', and cattle, is followed (ll. 194-6) by:

hrdzon-hyo-hśi-dze-ste-gdzu-ge-cig

357 phlan)-hdrah-dze-hthar-myehke-plan(356 hplan, ge-lol

hldihi-su-hldon | dze-hlda-hko-ge-hdzon rma-hsu-hdra-dze-hwam-wehi-ge-tswehu.

After the discussion supra (pp. 150 sqq.) it may perhaps be assumed as certain that in the expression mon-hdzon(hjon) the word hdzon = Tib. rdzoń, 'castle', which is also found (p. 214) written in Amdo as hdzon. In the above lines both hdzon, the usual Nam

form, and hrdzon occur.

Antithetic to hrdzon, in the following parallel verse is hke, with the addition plan-hdrah, whereof the element plan is known only1 from a Central-Asian Tibetan document (Zeitschrift für vergleichende Rechtswissenschaft, 1, pp. 281, 285), which speaks of 'a plan of a market town' (khrom-gyi-plan): it is suggested that plan is equivalent to sran, 'street', and it may, in fact, be etymologically

¹ Takpa, however, has plan, 'sun'.

connected therewith.¹ If hke is practically equivalent to khrom, the antithesis of the market town to the citadel is satisfactory. Such a word, moreover, will be acceptable as accounting for the syllable ke, ge in a number of place-names (Hel-ke, Ran-ke, Śud-ke, Mer-ke) from north-eastern Tibet or the adjacent regions.

Hke (l. 212, hkhe, Il. 251, 314, hkhehe) may be identified with the Tibetan word khe, 'profit' (khe-ñen, 'profit and loss', khe-pa, in Amdo = tshon-pa, 'tradesman, dealer'), a word and notion which can be shown to have been prominent in the thoughts of Tibetanusing Central-Asians. Accordingly the khe of any city was its bazaar or business quarter, its 'Cheapside'.

The hdra of plan-hdra will then be the 'network' (Tib. dra) of 'streets'; for a metaphorical use of dra is known in Tibetan with reference to a strategical network and also to fortifications (gron-gi-dra-ba, 'fortification round a village'). The literal sense is seen in 1. 260 hsas-hdrah-hdag-chi, 'children with nets' (for catching birds, &c., as in the Tibetan manuscripts).

The parallel expression hyo-hśi, attached to 'castle', can naturally contain the word hśi, 'high', noted above: and, in fact, the repetition of the verse in 1. 356 has the alternative form hśid. Since hyo is proved to exist in the text as equivalent to Tibetan g-yo, 'be unsteady', 'agitated', g-yo-byed, 'move' or 'quake', also 'cheat', yo, 'crooked', 'sloping', 'distorted', 'deceitful', the hyo-hśid, 'high crooked', can hardly help being 'the high road zig-zag' (rla-lam-sgya-sgyo—probably connected with g-yo/hyo: the common Tibetan form being gya-gyu) many times mentioned in one of the Tibetan manuscripts together with the 'high fort' (rlan-mkhar) and the 'high mansion' (rla-khyim). It is the zigzag ascent into the citadel.

Khe as a Verb = 'gain', appears elsewhere in the text (see p. 289), and hyo also may recur in the same sense of 'crooked'.

It is now quite evident what is meant by 'the Low Town becoming high' (hkhar-hrpag-g-yar-re, ll. 128, 136, see supra, p. 227) and the 'fort being made low' (hkar-rpag-re, l. 192). The 'High Town', the mtho-mkhar of one of the Tibetan manuscripts, is the residence of the chiefs, while the Low Town (dmah-mkhar, ibid.) is occupied by the commons, who will appear infra as kru,

¹ In Kan-su and NE. Tibet some unexpected phonetical relations are evidenced; thus, one of the Tibetan manuscripts has plan = rlans, 'moist', and Manyak has phwih, Menia fu, = swa, 'tooth'.

'filth', sc. 'rabble', 'canaille'. In the text the elevation of the Low Town is clearly equated to the fall of the 'Mon-castle':

hkhar-hrpag-g-yar-[re-]stor-moń-hjoń-re, 128, and to the rise of the *hldag-nag*, the villain of the situation:

hkhar-rpag-g-yar-re-hldag-[nag-]bgrom, 135-6.

It was through that event that importance came to the hgam. The fall of the Mon-castle caused the flight of the horse (ll. 79–80), the original chief, who is therefore described as 'making room', i.e. abandoning his place:

hrah-wehi-rta-ge-stor-mon-hdzon ||, 139-40

(cf. l. 114). The connexion of the same event with excessive heat (world-conflagration) is likewise mentioned:

dgu-hldo-htor-ge-stor-hmon-jon, 78, 139 (hdzon),

and the horse's flight is related to the same in:

dgu-hldo-htor-re-hra-we-rtah, 191.

The hgam seems actually to have come into being upon that occasion, and the horse's retreat thereto was synonymous with the loss of the can (i.e. the hrdzon):

hrtah-hgam-hkom ('made') -re-stor-mon-hjon rtah-hgam-hphar ('gone') -[re-]can-stor-hdor-hyoho||, 118–19.

The hgam is several times (II. 131-2, 133 (hrgam), 221) mentioned as hthan-hgam, i.e. 'hgam in the high plains (Tib. than)', on which see p. 5. This must be the gam/gams, 'posting-station', discussed supra, as occurring in some names of localities such as Bde-gams, and probably identical with bam/bams/boms, found in other names (Ba-bams, Khri-boms, &c.) and actually preserved in the original designation of Kum-bum, viz. Hgo-boms.² Essentially the horse's desertion of his place is his entry into the service of man (the hbos, 'big man', 'master', discussed supra, p. 231), which is a main feature in the text of one of the Tibetan manuscripts: and this fact helps us to realize the fundamental, but not obvious, unity of matter in the two compositions. What function the horse discharges in the Nam text will appear infra (p. 277).

¹ It is not quite certain that the hldag-nag = hbron is conceived as an individual and not as a class, the 'common people': the latter might be suggested by the expression hbron-re-ge (l. 250), which should mean 'all the hbron'. Possibly the text fluctuates between the notions of group and typical (here also allegorical) individual.
² On the alternation g/b see pp. 33, n. 5, 290.

It is only in this relation that a human being comes explicitly upon the scene.

In the text the word hgam occurs also, without reference to the particular hthan-hgam, in the sense of 'home-community' or 'company', 'group'. This is seen in:

ldyań-hjo-hjihi-re-mehi-ra-hgam ||, 78

'Where there is . . ., the eye's-horizon, or sentinel post (mehira) is the hgam.'

rňam-skar-hkah-re-gdah-hnah-hgam ||, 191

'Under threatening stars [any] available (gdaħ) place is the hgam.'

(the latter perhaps repeated in the fragmentary line 396) and in the above-quoted (p. 238) passage hnah-tsu, &c. The form with Prefix r, hrgam/rgam, has, no doubt, a verbal signification = 'form a community', 'take into a community', as we can realize by means of Tib. sgam, to which it exactly corresponds. In ordinary Tibetan this sgam is not known, though the parallel form sbam, sbams, sboms means 'place together', 'collect together'; but one of the manuscripts has it in:

nan-blo-rtul-gyis-hdzans-rnon-po-la-myi-bsgam-ho

'By disciplining an inferior mind one does not rank with the sharp-witted.'

Of this verbal rgam one occurrence (l. 307) has been quoted supra (p. 231) in connexion with man, and it is one of a group found in ll. 304–7; it may also be seen in:

rgyed-hsan-rgam-can-hldyo-hrje-hbro ||, 35-6

'A city (can?) with secret disunion (cf. II. 16-17 hrne-gsan, 'secret enmity') taken in (rgam),'

and similarly in ll. 169, 219, 286, 316. The first of these, l. 169, has an interest as bringing in another r/s form and also as illustrating the style of the text. In:

hrgom-hkhru[-]r[e]-hto-na-hrpehi-hrgam-re-hto hdro-hbron-prom-ge-hkohi-me-htul ||, 169, 170

'the hkhru being passed over (hrgom), the hrpehi were taken into the community:

the yak being made to go (\$\hat{h}dro\$), his speech-fire was suppressed,'

the order of the words should have been hkhru-hrgom-re-hto and correspondingly hbron-hdro-prom-ge, hrgom and hdro being the Predicates. In the first of the two cases the hrgom is placed in

front for the sake of antithesis to hrgam at the end of the verse: in the second the hdro is placed first for the sake of antithesis to me, 'fire'; and this, further, implies a pun on hdro, which also means 'heat', a pun which recurs in 1. 352 (antithesis to mu, 'cold'). There are some further rhetorical points in the context.

Hrgom is an r/s form of hgom = Tib. hgom, 'tread', 'pass over', gom-pa, 'pace', 'step', whence comes sgom, 'practice' and hence 'meditate'.

The obvious identity of can, as noted above, with rdzon, hdzon, is hardly less patent in:

hldan-rgye-hdor-re-hwan-ta-hnen

heań-rgye-rpag-re-hmo-ta-hpun ||, 209-11

'Having thrown away the big stick (or prop, support, hldan?), power is dangerous:

The big city laid low (talk or prayer or deliberation is vain?).' Fortunately, the explanation is simple: from occurrences in identical words it can be shown (Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, pp. 28–9, 250) that both this can also a form cag (an alternation n/g being established for Amdoan Tibetan by stin = sdig, hthug = hthun, &c., in the manuscripts) are merely the well-known Chinese word ch'èng (Ancient ziang, Karlgren, No. 1204), 'fortification', 'city', an exact equivalent of hrdzon. Other examples of can/hcan/chan in the Nam text differ in signification.

The form hwam = bam, of which particulars have been given above, and which may, in fact, be etymologically related to gam, occurs in antithesis to hdzoh in the last two lines of the passage (ll. 194-6) quoted above (p. 241). For the meaning 'mansion' or the like is clear in

hnor-hlah-hwam-hsid-dze, 11 'On the high hwams in the hnor'

where hnor = 'farm' or 'estate'. Hwam-wehi, in which we/wehi, will have its very common signification 'do', 'make' (Hsi-hsia we, Tib. hbyed, p. 337 infra), means 'home-making' (or 'maker'). tswehu, perhaps = htswe, l. 6, is unfortunately not known; but see p. 269. In the preceding verse hlda-hko-ge-hdzon can mean 'there (Tib. da-ko, see p. 201) is their castle'. This leads to the recognition of an important antithesis in the first parts of the two lines:

hldihi-su-hldon-dze . . ., 'to what (Tib. su) hldihi [they] depart'

rma-hsu-hdra-dze . . ., 'in what-like (Tib. hdra) rma'

and the sense emerges:

'Whatever land they go to, there is their castle:'

'By whatever river, home-making (makers) [is play?]' see p. 269.

That hldihi means 'land' will be evidenced independently (pp. 329–30): rma is the name, local and general, of the Tibetan Hoang-ho (Rma-chu), and the meaning 'By whatever Hoang-ho' would be quite apt with people bordering on that great river; but we can learn from Dr. Laufer (No. 109) that the Hsi-hsia term for 'river' is mašuo, 'that is, the River = Tibetan rma-chu, the Yellow River (Huang-ho)'.

In the two previous lines that which has ceased to exist on the high zigzag road up to the castle is the ste-gdzu-ge the 'files of donkeys' (on which see infra, p. 353), and what wanders free (lol) in the (burned) bazaar is the hthar-mye, 'the fires let loose' (= mye-thar of one of the Tibetan manuscripts).

This would be a suitable place for considering some other terms relating to dwellings: for various reasons most of these may conveniently be postponed. But gyim/kyim/hkyim has an analogy to hgam/hrgam, which favours its treatment here. The form immediately calls to mind a Tibetan word for 'house', khyim, which has very numerous cognates throughout the whole Tibeto-Burman sphere (for particulars see the Linguistic Survey of India, I. ii, 'Comparative Vocabularies', pp. 102–3). The verification is at once evident in:

hśod-te-rmag-dze-rmań-ra-gyim, 147-8

'For an army brought low the tomb-enclosure is home', more especially as confusion of *media* and aspirate is not infrequent in the Tibetan manuscripts, and the alternation is also etymologically justified. Quite similar is:

hran-hldah-hnam-ge-klu-hto-hkyim, 37

'the heaven-inhabitants proper [had to take] the blind [mountains] for home.'

But in the other occurrences:

hrihi-hdom-hkyim-re, 294, 297

hche-rgyo-hkyim-re, 323

hbri-hdzohu-kyim-re, 324

hyu-hstsah-kyim-re, 345, 350 (°hkyim), 351 (°hkyim),

kyim/hkyim is a Predicate, and we might not see the force of it, had we not learned from the case of hrgam that hkyim here means taken as members of the house', so that hrihi-hdom-hkyim-re means 'the mountain bears being included among the inhabitants', a meaning in full accord with the context.

This, however, is not the whole matter: for Tibetan has a word hgyim, 'circumference', which stands in normal relation to aspirated forms hkhyim, 'whirl' (as of water), hkhyims, 'be encircled with a halo', like the sun and moon: far from being secondary, the verbal idea of 'surrounding' is clearly the source of the notion of 'house', 'home', 'entourage': a situation highly characteristic of Tibeto-Burman speech, in which the roots so commonly denote not a material thing, but an idea of action or occurrence, a utility: see infra, p. 253.

20. skyim, hskyim; se, hse; hgar; hdzar; thar, htar, hthar; pyan, phyan; hto, tho; hphah-hphah; gcog; hphag; hbehi, hbe, hbehe; hbyig; hbah, hbar; hro; htsag; hbu; hrug, por, hpor; nu-glan; hkuhu; nehu; wehi, hwehi; hkuhu; hñed; htram; glah.

In Il. 69, 70:

skyim-se-hdzar-dze-hbehi-la-hgar thar-pyan-hjo-dze-hphag-la-gnah gcog-hlde-hldu-dze-hbyig-la-gnah

the expression hphag-la-gnah, which patently means 'a place for the hog' (Tib. phag, a word most widely represented in Tibeto-Burman languages), shows that the passage relates to the habitations of certain animals: and it calls to mind a passage in one of the Tibetan manuscripts, concerning the felicity of several species during the Age of Bliss: the sheep in the meadow, the horse in the moor, the goat and tiger (cha?) in the woods, the mdzo in the farm, the hog in the shelter (skyibs), &c. Even the language is in part similar: for the word dgar, 'gathered (encamped) apart', cf. sgar, 'camp', is clearly reflected in the Nam hgar.

Elsewhere sheep are casually mentioned as skyibs-lug, 'sheep of the skyibs',' which in the Dictionary is defined as 'a place giving shelter (either in a rock, under a tree, roof or cavern)', e.g. brag-skyibs, 'a sheltering place under an overhanging rock or a projecting roof', bkah-skyibs, 'a covered terrace or small portico before a house', char-skyib, 'shelter from rain' (= char-khyim of one of the Tibetan manuscripts).

¹ The phrase occurs also in a document cited in Inventaire des manuscrits tibétains de Touen-houang conservés à la Bibliothèque Nationale, by Mdlle Lalou, no. 239 (3).

Skyim-se will certainly be 'house-roof' = Tib. khan-rtse, 'house-top'; for this se, = rtse, is found in the Tibetan manuscripts applied to both a mountain top and to a house-roof, and the same is seen in the Nam text, the se of a mountain being mentioned in II. 14, 238-9, and the se of a house in

hce-hse-rgye-re-hrkas-hthan-hlde ||, 57

'If the roof is too large (high), a ladder is requisite.'

Hdzar clearly means 'stick together', 'cohere', being used of 'enemies and friends' (hrhe-ho, hdza-htrog) in II. 372, 376 (supra, p. 220), and being equivalent to Tib. hjar, which latter form also (scarcely distinguishable in script) appears in I. 220. Hence skyimse-hdzar means 'junction of roofs of (adjoining) houses', making in fact a skyibs. Here, therefore, we are thinking of houses in a town or village, as is also the case in I. 18 (hskyim-se).

With skyim-se-hdzar the thar-pyan of the following verse is again associated in:

htar-phyan-hto-re-skyim-hse-hdzar ||, 374.

In this passage hto can be =htho, 'high', tho, l. 132 (Tib. mtho), or tho, 'boundary', which occurs in 1. 109; and we need not conceal a suspicion that in 1. 69 also hjo is a miswriting (visually easy) of htho. The same hto = htho is possible in 1. 210, and practically certain in 1. 296, where g-ri-hto is parallel to hrihi-hruhu, l. 293.

It is, at any rate, clear that thar(htar)-pyan(phyan) is something connected with a dwelling; and the same is apparent in:

hgweg-hwehe-hphah-hphah^a-dze-hthar-phyan-ge-hrub, 348-9 'The laughing spouses (? p. 343) rushed to the hthar-phyan.'

Phyan must denote something suspended or dangling (Tib. dpyan/hphyan; dphyan, 'a hunter's nets', 'a lasso', dpyan-dar, 'a silk scarf attached to temple pillars or to flag-poles'). Hthar is more likely to be = Tib. mthar, Locative of mthah, 'end', than hthar/thar, 'get through', 'escape'. Hthar-phyan might then be 'boundary [partitions of] suspended [felt]', such as may be seen in Tibet; but we might think of the oft-illustrated roof-cords of

On ht = hth or th see p. 120.

4 Rockhill, pp. 75-6 (description), Diary, p. 132 (illustration); Futterer,

¹ Cf. the 'terraced roofs [in Lhabrang] which meet over narrow alleys' (d'Ollone, In Forbidden China, p. 284).

^{*} hphah-hphah, 'laugh', otherwise unknown, is proved by the antithetic hhu-hhur, 'groan', of the preceding verse: it might perhaps be regarded as self-evident; but note the parallel khá-khe of Hörpa. On hgweg-hwehe, see p. 343. Hrub, which occurs in ll. 108, 261 (g-rub) will be = Tib. rub, 'rush in a body', rub-te, 'altogether', W. Tibetan grub, 'all'.

the nomad tents, which before being tethered pass over the tops of rods planted in the ground outside and so produce a quasi-wall. Probably, however, we are not here concerned with tents, but with houses more or less adjoining and with partitions such as we have indicated; and this is, in fact, involved in the juxtaposition of htar-phyan and skyim-hse-hdzar in 1.374; but in either case we can see that the junctions of adjoining roofs of a projecting kind would afford the requisite skyibs for the animals. The phag in his free, paradisial, condition would have, no doubt, a 'rock-shelter', while in later times he would have a sort of sty on the boundary (mthar) of the compound.

The gcog-hlde-hldu will be the meadow, since we know by direct testimony (supra, p. 132) that in Nam cog = Tib. span, 'meadow':

cf. htan(than)-hldu, l. 14.

From all this it follows that the hbehi, whose place is the skyim-se-hdzar, is the sheep (skyibs-lug), while the hbyig of the meadow (gcog = Tib. span) is the cow. But, in order to carry this through, we must steel ourselves in the face of some improbabilities. In Tibetan ba is the common word for the ox-species, and its Diminutive, behu, means 'calf'. In Hsi-hsia the word for 'sheep' is ye (Laufer, No. 68), and the form appears to have some support in other Tibeto-Burman languages (Mo-so io, iu, &c.): in fact, we have already found this word in Namhya (supra, p. 227; cf. p. 343).

But, as is well known, a plurality of names for animals, representing distinctions of sex, age, &c., is usual in many languages. Hsi-hsia has a word (in Chinese 'transcription') mo, meaning 'sheep' (if not 'goat', Laufer, No. 173), and this might be really ba, of which our hbehi could be a 'Diminutive': in the Tibeto-Burman dialects there seem to be numerous forms, ma, mwa, nwa, which may go back to ba, a natural designation of 'baa'-sheep.

As regards hbyig, we note that Tibetan has, by the side of the generic ba and of glan, ba-glan, 'bull', for 'cow' ba-mo, ba-cu, and a number of forms, hjo and cognates, with which we shall have to deal infra (pp. 326-8). For cognates of Nam hbyig, signifying 'cow', we may note in the Tibeto-Burman sphere a surprisingly large number of forms such as:

pi, pī, pit, pīt, bik, bi, bī, bik, pui, pūi, muk, mūk, puk (Linguistic Survey of India, 1. ii, pp. 170-1)

i, pp. 281, 283, 336 (illustration); Filchner, Om Mani Padme Hum, pp. 145, 304 (illustrations).

See the illustration in d'Ollone, In Forbidden China (Tibet), p. 216.

For Hsi-fan cognates see supra, p. 94.

which may go back to an original big (or bwig) and which accordingly relieve us of any scruple in regard to Nam hbyig.1

The word hbyig does not recur; but hbehi is found in the

phrases:

hro-hbehi-hbah-ge, 110 htsag-hro-hbehi-hbar, 234

while the hbehi-hbah/hbe-hbah of II. 234–5 show both that hbehi may be found as hbe and that the hbar of I. 234 is Locative of hbah (in fact -r = re is required by both sense and metrical practice). Hence it is practically certain that in:

hbehi-bah-hbu || hrug, 47

hbehi means 'sheep', and the same is likely in regard to hbehe (= hbe) in 1. 46.

It can be shown that the phrase hro-hbehi-hbah signifies some oppressive occurrence: and, since hro may be = Hsi-hsia ro, 'wolf' (Laufer, No. 25), while hbah in Tibetan can mean 'seizure', 'distraint', 'carry off', it is highly likely that:

hro-hbehi-hbah-ge = 'wolves seizing, or oppressing, sheep' htsag-hro-hbehi-hbar, 'when wolf-packs (htsag = "collected", htshogs, as elsewhere in the text) seize, or oppress, the sheep'.

In 1. 47 (supra) hbu-hrug = Tib. mgo(=dbu, 'head') -rug, 'head bowed down'. The same hbu, 'head', in Hsi-hsia wu (Laufer, No. 103, where are given parallels in Mo-so, &c.), reappears in:

hdzam-hbroń-hroń-dze-hdam-to-hbu-hpor, 68

'in tame-yak gorges the tied (animals) have their heads released',

where por/hpor, applied to nu-glah, 'young oxen', in ll. 175, 359 (phor) and with chi and hdro, 'set free to go', in ll. 183, 353, is = Tib. hbor, 'let go' (in the Tibetan manuscripts bor and por; ef. p. 319 infra).

There is no evidence that hwehi in any of its occurrences is identical with hbehi;

Usually it is the verb 'do' (g-we, see p. 337). In:

hkuhu-nehu-htshe-re-wehi-nehu-hrehe, 74

'if the fresh hkuhu (Tib. khu, 'liquid', 'sap', 'broth'?) harms (goes bad?), there is the fresh wehi'

por also Inventaire des Manuscrits tibétains . . . by Mdlle Lalou, No. 67. 1.

¹ It is curious that Chinese had an old word 'b'yi (Karlgren, No. 713) = 'cow'.

it seems as if some liquid should be meant: and in:

hñed-ge-slug-dze-hwehi-hśi-hpo ||, 47-8

it perishes $(h\acute{s}i\text{-}hpo)$ in some connexion with the process of tanning $(h\~{n}ed)$. In case, then, it should mean 'cream', it would accord with the statement of Rockhill (p. 81) that the Koko-nor Tibetans, who are 'expert tanners', use cream for softening the skins: obviously the cream 'perishes' or vanishes.

A metaphorical use of the idea of tanning may be found in one of 'the Tibetan manuscripts', where a certain queen is described as pressing down the heads of the fiends and rendering them pliant (rñen, a form of Tib. mñe, mñed, 'tan', 'rub', mñen, 'pliable', 'soft', mñen-mñel, 'make soft by tanning'). So in the Nam text the Ḥbra kingdom or folk were not shaken by the world-cataclysm by reason of three characteristics, whereof one is:

hñed-htram-htsah-glah-tah, 31

'having a glah stiff (htram = Tib. tram, as p. 285 infra) to tan or knead.'

They were a 'tough subject'. This interpretation is notably confirmed by the word glah, for which elsewhere we have to recognize the common meaning of Tib. gla, viz. 'wage'; for we have Hörpa gla, Mānyak grah (Thōchū rāpī?), meaning 'skin', perhaps also Tib. gra, 'awn', 'bristle', gra-legs, 'thick and glossy fur'.

21. gdzu, hdzu, gzu, hzu, hju, hjuhu; hran-hche; hglyan, hlkyan; hbyi; hkyud; hcah, ca, hcha, cha; hdrab; hbrad; stor; hdor; mehi (hmehi)-klu (hklu)-hcah (hcha); kya-wa-ne, hkyah-hwa-ne, hkya-wa-ne; hdrab-hwa(hwah)-hran; hkya, kya; hkho; hpah; hdom (°hgu, °hguhu); hkohu-mehe; rma; gre; hldyo, hldyoho, ldyo; hkyu-hldon; rgyen; sli; hti; hrwad; hban-prom; klag; hdzur; hwi-hwa; hram.

An identity of gdzu, gzu, hju, hdzu, hzu easily understood by reason of the pervading equivalence of the Prefixes g and h in the Nam text and of the very frequent confusion of dz and j in Tibetan script and pronunciation, and (slightly) surprising only by reason of the intrusion of z, which, as explained supra (p. 168), is very rare in Nam, is proved by the following parallels:

ste-gdzu-ge-lol, 194 = ste-he-hju-ge-gcig, 356 hrań-hche-hju-ge, 115 = rań-hche-hzu, 117 hdzu-hdro-hphor, 183 = gzu-hdro-hphor, 353

¹ e.g. in the glah-hlad, 'return for wages', &c., Il. 232-7, and perhaps gla-hdzo=Tib. gla-mi, 'hireling', Il. 29, 62, 73.

hglyań (i.e. hlkyań)-hśe-ge-gzu-hbyi-hkyud, 307 = lkyańhzu-hrňo-re-hňa(hnań)-hdro-mo, 188 gdzu-hbyi-hnań-re, 305, 308, 311.

In Il. 115, 117 the hju, hzu is called hran-hche, which must be = Tib. ran, 'self'+gces, ches, 'dear', 'important', 'believe', and clearly means 'self-willed', more especially as l. 117 continues:

hran-hkah-khar-gsom, 'the three towns talking at will'.

In l. 307 the 'wise' $hglya\hat{n}$ ('capable' $hlkya\hat{n}$ in l. 188) are said to be of gzu-hbyi race (hkyud = Tib. rgyud, as in l. 220 and elsewhere: see pp. 214, 258); and this fact alone would be decisive, since the $hlkya\hat{n}$ must be = $rkya\hat{n}$, the 'wild ass' of Tibet. The 'self-willed character of the ass, hju, hzu, accounts probably for the word gzu-lum, 'lums, 'obstinate', 'rash', &c., in Tibetan, which does not seem to have preserved any other trace of the noun.

No more is needed to prove that gdzu, hdzu, gzu, hzu, hju are the original Nam forms of the word zu certified as Nam, and as meaning 'ass', by the Tibetan translator mentioned above (p. 132), in the name cho-pyi-cog-zu, 'Ass of the Meadow, Little Tiger', and occurring elsewhere as zu-tsog-zu, 'Ass, Meadow Ass'. But we can also see that gdzu-hbyi, gzu-hbyi, since hbyi will appear elsewhere = Hsi-hsia dbhi/hbhi/hbhi, 'small' (Nevsky, No. 125; see infra, p. 265), is the genuine original form of cho-pyi, 'Little Tiger', so that gdzu, in gdzu-hbyi, properly means not 'ass' but 'tiger'.

We have here, it seems, the explanation of the whole matter. For the Nam text actually has hjuhu (l. 312) with the signification 'tiger', or, at least, some clawing beast; and this is, perhaps, the Chinese hu (Ancient, ' χuo , Karlgren, No. 87), or \ddot{u} (Ancient αgiu , Karlgren, No. 1284), having that meaning. The resemblance of the Chinese loan-word to the native Nam word, zu, $\dot{z}u$, $\dot{z}u$, $\dot{z}u$, or dzu, for 'ass', inspired the Nam people with the notion of a resemblance between the two creatures. And this resemblance is actually stated in the text:

hran-hche-hju-ge-hcah-htso-htsah, 115 'self-willed asses are equal to *hcah* (ravenous beasts).'

The kiang, or Wild Ass, though of ass race, is 'wise'.

It is, however, possible that the word represented by the Tibetan writer's cho is not the word for 'tiger', hjuhu, but this same hcah, which also appears as cha, hcha: cf. za/zo, &c., p. 199. Line 71

¹ The ±u-brab of one of the Tibetan Manuscripts, denoting some unlucky cast in divination, is perhaps a 'clawing tiger'.

speaks of 'glaring' hcha, and in Il. 235, 239, 240, 242, of the ca or hchah as requiring suppression in company with the yak; but

202, 203 speak of its 'horns' (hru).

The word hcah/cha, which is really nothing but the Tibetan verb hchah, 'snap at', 'mangle', together with two other terms, namely hdrab and hbrad, used in the Nam designations of certain animals, invites attention to a feature of such nomenclature. As mentioned above, the Tibetan names of objects are often merely verb-roots expressing some action or occurrence, the connexion being a human interest or utility. Thus hcah can be a common designation of all animals which 'mawl', hdrab of all animals which 'snatch' (hbrab), and hbrad of those which 'scratch'. European language is not innocent of such anthropocentric expressions, careless of nature's species: thus under the English word 'game' a large variety of independently existing creatures is lumped together. Another Nam example of the same will present itself later (p. 256).

In Il. 161-3 three classes of creatures are grouped together as destined to be driven in flight (stor-hdor-yon = Tib. stor, 'be lost', 'go astray', cf. hthor, btor, gtor, 'be strewn, dispersed, &c.'+dor/hdor, 'throw out', 'cast out', 'forsake', +yon, on which see p. 199):

hldyan-hpu-hbri-re-mehi-klu-hcah-yan-stor-hdor-hyon kyu-ldon-rho-re-kya-wa-ne-yan-stor-hdor-hyon || hldyo-hdom-nag-re-hdrab-hwa-hran-yan-stor-hdor-hyon. ||

In II. 339-40 and 343-4 the first two reappear:

hkyu-hldon-hrno[-]r[e]-hkyah-hwa-ne[-]r[e]-hstor-hdehihphyid ||, 339-40

hldyan-hpu-hbri-re-mehi-hklu-hcah sron-ñe-gśe-re-ldan-[hdehi]-hpyid || ||, 343-4.

In II. 214-15, 218, the hkya-wa-ñe, similarly described as kyu-hldon-hrho, are said htshu-to-hphan ('had better come'?); and the hmehi-klu-hcah, likewise described as hldyan-hpu-hbri-re, have the great hkho for their hkho ('ruler'?). In I. 150 the latter are again stated to have fled (stor-htah-htoni ||).

In connexion with the last group of passages we find mention of

the hbrad:

hbehi-tyan-rdehe-ge-hstsah-hbrad-hrdaghi ||, 213-14
'flocks (rde, see p. 270) of sheep and tyan repel (Tib. rdeg,
"smite") the hstsah-hbrad' (for the sense, cf. the ldyo-stor
... of l. 140, infra).

and these hbrad appear as 'braves' (hpah) in:

hbrad-re-hpah-yan-hman-ge-hrgam-hjihi ||

hbrad-re-hpah-ge-hbrad-sta-hśid-re-hyah-hdahd ||, 305-6.

Here immediately follow the hdom-hgu and the gdzu-hbyi; and with the hdom-hguhu we find the hjuhu-hbrad in:

hdom-hguhu-rma[-]r[e]-hri-stah-mehi hjuhu-hbrad-rma[-]r[e]-g-ri-sta-mehi, 312-13.

In II. 171-3 the hldyo-hdom-hnag of I. 162 are said to have talked (hkohu-hphrom-hto) and then apparently to have been deprived of the 'fire of speech' (hkohu-mehe); and they are no longer identified with the hdrab-hwah-hrah, who in II. 172-3 severally (hrah) talked:

hdrab-hwah-hran-hran-re-hkohu-phrom-hto and whose 'fire of speech' was then hdrab.1

To complete the story it has to be mentioned that:

ldyo-stor-hthu-re-hdrab-stor-htoho ||, 140 'the ldyo being assembled in flight, the hdrab flee'.

The hjuhu-hbrad of ll. 312-13 have already been identified as 'clawing tigers'; and in ll. 305-6 they are, we see, curtly mentioned as the hbrad, 'the clawers', and their hbrad-sta, 'clawings', are noted. Their rma, which in ll. 312-13 render the mountains useless (g-ri-sta-mehi), are therefore the wounds (Tib. rma) which they inflict. The hdom-hgu associated with them in this are obviously the bears (Tib. dom, 'tawny bear'), the gre who in Il. 304-5 occur with the hdom-hgu as 'mountain-community-bears' (hrihi-hrgamgre, Tib. gre, 'bear'). We can see then that the hldyo-hdom-nag associated in 1. 162 with the hdrab-wa-hran, and distinguished from them in ll. 171-3, are another kind of bear, the black (Tib. nag) bear. Since, with unmistakable punning, the 'fire of speech' is stated in the case of the hdrab-hwah-hran, Il. 172-3, to have been 'snatched away' (hdrab), whereas in the case of the hldyo-hdomhnag it was hldyo, it follows that the hldyo in the second case means some kind of 'taking' or 'deprival'.2

¹ Tibetan hdrad exists as a by-form of hbrad, 'claw', 'be wrathful', while hbrab is 'snatch', 'beat', &c. Initial gr, dr, br are liable to confusion in even early Tibetan (hgron/hdron, hgrul/hdrul, hgrim/hbrim, hdrid/hbrid); and in the Nam there is perhaps some confusion of hdrab (cf. brab, supra p. 253) and brad.

² Concerning the great Tibetan bear, regarded as semi-human and intensely dreaded—being the 'abominable' (which should be 'carnivorous', gcan-gzan) 'snow-men' of Himālayan explorers—reference may be made to Prejevalsky, Mongolia, ii, 249-51, and Rockhill, The Land of the Lamas, pp.

The hkya-hwa-ñe are regularly, we see, described as hkyu-hldon-hrño, which can reasonably be understood as 'capable (hrño) of making off (Tib. hdon) with speed' (Tib. dkyu, dkyus, 'run a race', 'swift'). They will then be fugitive creatures; and this furnishes an explanation of their name. For kya in its other occurrences in the text is very probably = Tib. skya, 'crop', while hwa will very likely mean 'making' (cf. hdrab-hwa, 'snatch-making' and see infra, p. 337), and ñe has, as we have seen (p. 222), the signification 'injuring', 'bad'. Thus the hkya-hwa-ñe will be 'crop-making-injury' creatures, i.e. antelopes and other fugitive species which

make war upon agriculture.

We come now to the mehi-hklu-hcah, described as hldyan-hpuhbri. The description, in which hpu-hbri may, as shown supra (p. 217), but need not, mean 'male and female', involves the very difficult word hldyan and may therefore be left for a later consideration (pp. 331-3). But mehi-hklu we already know (p. 131) as the name (Mye-kru) of a legendary person, who, as well as one of his daughters, was devoured by the demon Dqu-lcogs, in another version Go-ya-go. That name is stated to mean 'Eye-blind', and in the Nam text mehi and hklu have been shown (p. 223, cf. p. 282) to have the corresponding significations. The person, whose daughter became the peacock ancestress of the Skyi people, was perhaps the legendary progenitor of their Nam kinsfolk. His name, 'Blind Birds' Head and King' (supra, p. 131), and the story of his daughter, suggest that he was originally a bird, namely an owl; and this suggestion is confirmed by the name of the fiend, Go, which may very well be = Tib. go (Mo-so hio), 'vulture'. The enemy of the owl, in Indian legend the crow, may in old Tibet have been the vulture. In the passage:

hldyan-hpu-hbri-re-hmehi-klu-hcah-dze-htor-hkho-gehkhohi ||, 218,

following a description of the great yak as \$hkho\$, which word seems elsewhere to mean 'chief' or 'leader' (infra, p. 263), it seems likely that the meaning is that over (dze) the \$hmehi-klu-hcah\$, 'the great \$hkho\$ (= hgo, vultures) are \$hkho\$ (chiefs)'. As regards the syllable \$hcah\$ added to \$hmehi-klu\$, it has previously (JRAS. 1939, p. 207) been suggested that it may be the pluralizing \$tsa\$, &c., found in other connexions (see p. 187). But, since that \$hcah\$ has not \$116-17\$, \$150-1\$, &c. Rockhill tells us (pp. 171-2) that 'Bears are very numerous around the Yellow River, where they do not keep to the hill-sides, but are frequently met with on the plains'.

been found in the text as tsa, &c., it is now more likely that it is merely another instance of the hcah which means 'mangle', 'tear'.

The connexion of the mehi-hklu-hcah with the Nam country may explain why in Il. 343-4 it is said of him that:

sron-ñe-gśe-re-ldan-hdehi-hpyid

'being straightly (or straightly and evilly, ne) wise, he suffices as an ally (? ldan-hdehi-hpyid),'

whereas in Il. 339-40 the fugitive hkyah-hwa-ñe 'suffices as flying (hstor-hdehi-hphyid)', i.e. all he wants (or all that we want) is that

he should get away, from the crops.

The word hldyo, attached to the black bear in the recurrent phrase hldyo-hdom-nag and identical, or punningly identified, with a hldyo meaning 'take', 'deprive', or the like, cannot, one would suppose, have much to do with the ldyo of l. 140 (quoted supra):

'the ldyo being assembled in flight, the hdrab flee':

the hldyo-hdom-nag are themselves hdrab (l. 162). In fact, the text itself in ll. 383-4 distinguishes a ldyo-roho, 'ldyo-district', from a hldyo-hro, 'hldyo-district'. But what if ldyo = 'cattle'? We then get the sense:

'when the fleeing cattle close together, the wolves, &c., flee' which is a well-certified occurrence, stated also in the ll. 213-14 hbehi-tyan . . . quoted supra (p. 253). In another passage:

hdom-hgu-htsuhu-hyan-hman-hldyo-hrgam, 303-4 'though the bears come, cattle in numbers (hman-hldyo) form a community'.

But, if ldyo does not essentially mean 'cattle', but rather 'milk', secondarily 'all animals used for milking', we not only obtain a term analogous to the above hdrab and hbrad, but also understand the 'taking' and 'depriving': the 'fire of speech' was 'snatched away' (hdrab) from the hdrab-hwah-hrah, but 'milked out' (hldyo) from the hldyo-hdom-hnag. That ldyo, in the form ldyohu, has, in fact, the meaning 'milk' may appear, it is hoped, later (pp. 326-8): the metaphorical application of the notion of 'milking' can be seen again in:

hnu[-]r[e]-hnah-rgyen-na-hnu-hldo-hldyoho ||, 355
'absence of weeping (Tib. nu, nur) being put in order ("arranged" Tib. yen or "being attended to", "moving softly", Tib. g-yen), weeping was milked away',

where hau and hah are already known, as also the Abstract Suffix hldo; and rgyen, with the required sense of 'putting in order', recurs in the next following verse.

The above may help to explain what were the creatures, sli and hrwad, which in the two cases respectively 'milked' and 'snatched away' the fire of speech:

sli-ḥti-ḥrno[-]r[e]-ḥkoḥu-meḥe-ḥldyo |||, 171-2 hrwad-ḥban-prom-yan-hkoḥu-me-hdrab, 172-3

so that the hldyo-hdom-hnag and hdrab-hvah-hran have remained speechless. The hrwad, who is hban-prom, i.e. 'made powerful or master (Tib. dban)', can readily be identified with Tib. rbad, 'a large species of eagle', more especially since the next following verse reads:

klag-hrwad-hdzur-[re]-hwi-hwehi-htsag, 173

where klag, which appears also in Tib. klag-cor, 'clamour', 'noise', is the name (glag) of 'a bird resembling an eagle . . . : carries away kids and lambs. This bird is numerous in Mongolia, central Tibet, and Kham. Probably the lammergeyer.' Rbad itself means 'harsh-voiced' and is name of 'a large species of eagle'. Thus the verse means:

'while the screaming eagle, or lammergeyer, is away (Tib. hdzur, zur, &c., "turn aside", "a corner", &c.), the mice or rats (Tib. byi-ba+hi, on which see p. 191) collect.'

The mice or rats (hwi-wa) can be seen again in Il. 201, 273.

It is therefore fairly certain in advance that the sli, who 'milked' the fire of speech from the bears, are some animal species. They cannot be the Tibetan sri, 'a species of devil or vampire', because that word seems to occur in the text in the form sri and in a dissimilar context. In l. 46 they are imagined or dreamed of, perhaps in the dark, by the hbehe, who may be sheep (p. 249). In the present passage they are hti-hrho, 'capable of, or acquainted with darkness or stopping (hti)': in Il. 288, 318, they are 'wise'; and in the former of these they have authority when the hrlehi are accordant or pleased (hram) in supervision, whereas in the latter they ldyon or ldyob (reading not quite certain) when the hldehi are hmor ('bad' or 'stupid') or hmo in supervision. If they were marmots, they would be taking a just revenge upon the bears, which feed upon them, but there is no philological support for this; if they were tortoises, that might explain their power of resting (hti), and the name might be connected with Hsi-hsia lin

and the cognates adduced by Dr. Laufer (No. 133). But philological evidence is wanting: since, however, the field of search is circumscribed, it seems likely that a decisive etymology will one day be found (srin, srin-bu, 'worm', 'maggot', 'insect', 'vermin'?) The Dictionary knows sri as 'a kind of wild animal'.

22. rta, hrta, rtah, hrtah; hbron; rgyag, hcag-rgyag; rdzo; hkyud; hkrug; -hgu; hldag/gldag-nag/gnag; hko-nag; hko, hkoho, hkohu, kho, hkho, hkhoh, hkhohu, hgo, rgo, rgor; rho (hko°, hkho°, hku°); hkus; hton, gton (hgo°, hrah°); hkah-hgo; rab; hrah, ra (skuhu°, mehi°, rgo°); hbar; rwer; hnam; hthun; hpan; hphan (g-ri°, hrihi°).

That rta and hbron are the horse and yak-bull respectively, the hero and villain of the composition, requires no proof: the names are identical with the Tibetan forms. The rdzo, who is the friend of the hbron:

htan-hrdzo-hno[-]r[e]-htor-hbron-htsors, 219-20 than-rdzo-hkyud-na-hbron-hdru-hjar, 220

must be the mdzo, the cross between the yak-bull and the cow. We see that he is placed in the than, or the upland plains, and is described as a hkyud, which word, in the form hgyud, recurs, in company with hkrug (= Tib. hkhrug, 'quarrel', 'quarrelsome', as in Il. 18, 371) in:

hkrug-hrdzo-hgyud-dze-hrno-hyod-yod, 16

and is equivalent to Tib. rgyud, 'race' (see supra, pp. 214, 252).

In Il. 225-8 the rdzo receives successively the depreciatory epithets (see p. 215) mor-hgu, mug-hgu, hbri-hgu, in which the syllable hgu, occurring also with hdom, 'bear', in the above-cited passages, ll. 303, 304, 312, is, of course, = the Tibetan 'Diminutive' Suffix seen in khyi-gu, 'puppy', &c. It is possible that in ll. 225-8 the term rdzo is being contemptuously applied to the hbron, who is

there the real, or main, object of denunciation.

Have we in the text any equivalent of Tib. g-yag/byag, 'yak'? The most persuasive passage is that quoted on p. 139, where the yak, who is certainly meant, is not named unless the word rgyag is a Nam form of g-yag/byag, which on the analogy of rbyo = bya, 'bird', rdza = mdzah, 'friend', it might easily be. But in that case we should expect a recurrence of the word in the text, which has so much to do with the yak. The actual recurrences of the word rgyag are, in fact, not encouraging. For in 1. 89 (p. 321) the phrase gsom-rgyag-hsor must mean 'the forming a thought lapsed' with the Verb rgyag, idiomatic in Tibetan, meaning 'cast', 'strike', 'found', 'put', form', &c., a synonym of hdebs. Hence don-rgyag in the passage quoted on p. 139 will mean 'form or make a purpose'. Again, in:

ḥcag-rgyag-ḥris(=Tib. bris/ris)-dze-ḥno-sto-ge-rdo-re-cis-tshahbyiḥi, 83-4

'when, with hcag-rgyag-diminished, friends dare, deserters (?) (hci, gci, 'go', 'come', Tib. mchi, mchis), are few.

hcag-rgyag seems to be an equivalent of Tib. chag-rgyag, 'doubt', sc. 'hesitation'. Accordingly in the preceding passage:

heah-rte-hyu-rgyag-dze-hldas, 82-3

the meaning will not be 'went over to the yak', but:

'making (rgyag) alliance with the hcah party, deserted' the hcah being the frequently mentioned ravenous animals and rte a miswriting, or alternative of rde, hrde (p. 270), cf. rto for rdo, 'stone'. Then in:

smu-hdzu-rgyag-dze-hldań-rmań-hrwehi ||, 27 'under the stroke (rgyag) of brimstone (? = Tib. mu-zi), the tombs of wooden posts were destroyed'

and

hde-hyim-sto-rgyag-rgu-hmyil-myil, 29

'prosperity being made (rgyag) to diminish, thieves lurked, lurked' (?)

the same Verb rgyag may be recognized.

In a number of passages, Il. 129 (gnag), 130, 132, 134, 135, there is mention of a hldag-nag, in l. 136 gldag-nag. Line 130:

hthan-rdzo-hno[-]r[e]-hldag-nag-htshors

in comparison with Il. 219-20 (quoted above) establishes his identity with the hbron: and everything else that is said of the hldag-nag confirms the identification; his rise was due to the rise of the 'Low Town' and the fall of the 'Mon-castle' (Il. 128-9, 135-6) and the horse's departure, just as was that of the hbron. Hence hldag-nag can have nothing to do with Tib. ldag, 'lick', or nag with Tib. nag, 'voice' (which occurs elsewhere, Il. 104, 276, 278, in the text). It is = Tib. ltag, 'the back part of the neck', 'the upper or back part of anything', with confusion of lt- and ld-, as not uncommon in Tibetan and in this particular word, as well as in others, exemplified in one of the Tibetan manuscripts. Else-

where in the text (ll. 45, 52) the same word hldag/gldag occurs with the meaning 'load' (Tib. ltan, perhaps etymologically connected with ltag). Thus hldag-nag (Tib. nag, 'black', as in hdomnag, 'black-bear') means 'black-back', a designation highly appropriate to the yak.

A similar explanation applies to the expression hko-nag in:

hpu-hbos-hyah-ge-hdro-hko-hnag, 266-7

'With the big man in front (at the head) go the hko-nag'.

For hko-nag will be the famous expression 'black-head', denoting the 'common people', especially (and perhaps originally) of China, and occurring in the form mgo-nag in a Tibetan text (Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 279, =JRAS. 1931, p. 819).

Hgo, = mgo, also, occurs in the manuscripts.

It would be convenient if in the Nam text it were possible to disentangle the several equivalents of Tib. mgo, 'head'; hgo, 'origin', 'source', 'foremost'; hgo, 'stain', 'infect'; sgo, 'door', 'entrance', 'means'; sgo/bsgo, 'direct', 'command', 'stain with'; dgo, 'a species of antelope'; bgo, 'portion', 'share', 'division', 'retribution'; bgo/gos, 'clothe', 'clothing'; as well as go, 'place', 'space', 'way', 'rank', go 'understand', go(-bo), 'vulture', go (ko), a particle (on which see pp. 201, 245). The matter is likely to be increased in difficulty by confusion with any equivalents of Tib. kho, -kho, ko, rko, sko. But some progress has been made:

- (a) mgo, 'head', has been recognized in hko-nag: see also (e).
- (b) go/ko, the Particle, has been recognized (p. 201) in hlda-hko, 1. 195, and is possible in hbri-hko, Il. 156, 202, 203, and the parallel hwi-hkho, I. 336.
- (c) ħko = go, 'place', 'room', is evident in: hko-wehi-htuhu, 100, 'assembled, making room' by reason Tib. go-byed, 'making room'. See also (e).
 - (d) ħko = sgo, 'gate', is apparent in: rog-hji-rdan-ge-hko-hton-modhi, 211-12.

It is, however, only a miswriting, since hgo- $gto\hat{n}$ occurs in the next preceding line: see (ϵ). The hko of hko-htar, II. 68, 371, 373, 386, 390, may be the same as in hko- $hto\hat{n}$.

Applied to Tibetan common people, it may be seen in a document quoted by Mdlle Lalou, *Inventairs*—, p. 6, No. 16, f. 34; also in the Lha-sa stone inscriptions (ed. Waddell, *JRAS*. 1910, p. 1276, A, l. 10, and p. 1277, B, l. 13). In the Rgyal-ron it is still in use (see Tafel, ii, pp. 227, 229).

(e) hgo = sgo?, 'gate', is apparent, though go, 'place' is not impossible, in:

rgyed-htso-dro-ho, 'rgyed comes to the htso'
,, -hgo-hdro, ', ,, gate'
,, -hkab-hdro, ', ,, house'

hdyan-hto-hton-ge-hgo-gton-mod, 210-11

'the high wall (?) being surrendered, the gate or place is surrendered' (hton/gton, = Tib. 'send', 'admit', 'give up', sgo-nas-gton-ba, 'admit through the door')

phye-hgo-hthun-re-hnam-hdzam-htar, 145-6

'when there is a small (Tib. thun) open space, the tamehearted makes his escape (Tib. hthar).'

In the phrase hgo-gton the meaning of gton is guaranteed by the parallel hrah-hton, 'place surrendering', in ll. 146 (with 'army'), 273 (with 'enemy'), 358, na-rom-hton, 'leave vacant place', l. 100; while in ll. 119, 190, the sense of 'let go', 'emit', appears:

hrah-hton-gsohu-dze-rñe-ge-hgo ||, 358

'When place-abandoners survive, the bad (cowards?) are the means' (or, with hgo = 'head', 'with place-abandoning survivors the bad are leaders').

It is, however, conceivable that in these passages hgo is not actually = Tib. sgo, 'gate', but is go, 'place', used in some rather special sense, 'home', 'station', or the like. We may also regard as doubtful:

rab-hgo-cig-dze, 376, 'when the approach to the ford (rab) is destroyed (?)'.

The same sense, 'gate' or 'place', is apparent in ll. 46 (hgo hpo), 261 (g-rub-hgoho), 369 (hgo-hdzin): hkvan-hgo, l. 212, is obscure (reading uncertain).

In hkah-hgo, l. 105, though it occurs in the vicinity of a hgo, 'gate', the Tibetan kha-bsgo, 'advice', which suits the context, is in favour of Tib. bsgo.

Hgo, 'vulture', may with probability be recognized in:

hsas-hdrah-hdag-chi-hgo-hsor-re-hyun, 260

'children with (hdag, "possessed of") nets (Tib. dra) spent their time (yun) hunting (Tib. bśor, byehu-śor, "huntbirds") vultures'

because the sport of catching vultures by means of nets is known in Tibet (d'Orléans, From Tonkin to India, p. 228).

(f) rgo = Tib. sgo, the most normal equivalent, is certain in: g-rah-hsah-hkhehe || na || hnor-hdzań-rgo-htoho || rgo-hrah-hnor-[re-]hdzań-hyah-htoho ||, 314-15 'In winning an enemy land (or In an enemy's winning the land) fool and wise man are the gate.'

'If the gate-ward is a fool, the wise man is antagonized.'

For here the idiomatic use of hrah, ra, 'enclosed place', as in Tib. sgo-ra-ba, 'door-keeper', 'door-guard', is guaranteed by the sgo-ra, sku-ra, 'door-guard', 'own person', of the Tibetan manuscripts, while the Nam text has probably skuhu-ra (l. 6) in the Tibetan sense and also mehi-ra, ll. 78, 186, 369, 'eye-horizon', in the sense of 'sentinel'.

The same rgo is probable in:

htsog-hram-hnah-tse-htor-śi-rgo |||, 120

'When htsog-hram sickens, it is a great gate of death' śe-rgo-hldom-dze-hpah-hrgam-hnam ||, 258-9

'When the wise have their doors shut, the community of heroes declines (Tib. ñams)'

and clearly also in the antithesis:

 $rgor (= \text{Tib. } hgor) \dots hbar (= \text{Tib. } bar) \dots rwer, 96-7$ 'at the beginning . . . in the middle . . . at the end (?).'

(g) An entirely different hko must be seen in the recurrent expression hko-rho (II. 53-6, 272, 342), hkho-rho (II. 189, 267). The second syllable, corresponding to Tib. rho, 'be able', supplied in early times a very common expression rho-thog, 'capable', 'competent', which we should be prepared to find reflected in hko(hkho)-rho. In that case the hko(hkho) might be connected with Tib. hkho/mkho, 'think, or be, of use, necessary', hkhos, 'value', 'importance', 'necessity', 'usefulness'.

Outside the compound hko(hkho)-rho the word rho is found:

- (i) several times as a Subject, obviously meaning 'ability' or 'power' (Il. 16, 49, 368);
- (ii) several times by itself as a Predicate, meaning 'able' or 'wise' (ll. 179, 188, 360)?;
- (iii) frequently as an Auxiliary with Verbs, stor°, l. 141; hwa°, 'make', 'do'?, ll. 116, 269, 335; ldoń°, hldoń°, 'go', 'depart', ll. 161, 214, 369; hkog°, l. 189; hyog°, g-yog°, 'serve', 'help', ll. 156, 289, 322.

These facts would favour in hko(hkho)-rho a verbal meaning of the

hko(hkho); and the Verb hkho in the sense of 'be of use' would be suitable.

It cannot, however, be said that that meaning of hko(hkho)-rho is everywhere satisfactory. In:

rbyo-hko-rno-dze, 53, 'under a capable rbyo' (cf. 56) hko-rno-ge-hco, 55, 'the capable are leaders' hko-rno-hyah-ge, 272, 'with the capable in the van'

that meaning might suffice. And in:

hko-rno-hce-dze, 53-4, 54-5,

we might understand hko-rho as a Noun, 'ability' ('of great ability'), or take the hce adverbially = 'greatly'. But in some of these cases we might prefer the signification 'leader' or 'master', e.g. in:

stor-hkho-hrho-re, 189, 'when the master is lost', and in:

hko-rno-klu-re, 342, 'when the leader is blind',

the rendering 'capable' would be contradictory.

If this is so, we can still work with the Tibetan hkho/mkho, provided that we adopt the signification 'chief person or thing', which sense may have given rise to the expression kho-na, 'only', 'exactly', 'the very', occurring in the famous Buddhist term de-kho-na, 'essence', 'reality'. A kho signifying 'chief' is required in:

hkhar-hrpag-g-yar-re-stor-mon-hjoù-re re-hmon-hjoù-re-hldag-gnag-hkhoho ||, 128-9 'Low Town having become high, Mon-castle lost, In all (?) the Mon-castle the black-back is chief.'

And this is confirmed by the repetition of the word in Il. 215-18:

htor-hbron-hkhoho . . . htor-hkho-ge-hkhohi
'The great Yak is chief . . . the great is chief'

since, as we have seen, the great Yak is identical with the 'black-back'.

Perhaps this sense of hkho accounts also for hri-hkho, ll. 291, 295, 'hill-top', more especially as in ll. 290-1, it is contrasted with g-ri-hpan, 'hill-bosom' (side), recurring in ll. 302 (hrihi-hphan), 308.

1 Cf. Tib. ri-kha, p. 132, supra.

Hku-rho in g-we-hku-rho, l. 152, has been interpreted above (p. 228) as a different expression, containing a Verb hku, 'desire': ef. hkus, l. 352.

- (h) Still a further hkoho, for which Tibetan supplies no etymology, occurs in l. 101, where it is equivalent to the very common hkohu/hkhohu, 'speak', 'speech'. It has been suggested (JRAS. 1939, p. 206, n. 1) that this is Chinese k'ou, 'mouth', 'speech': and this is strongly supported by the phrase htab-hkhohu-hkhohu, ll. 292, 295 (p. 298), 'answer-speaking-speaking', i.e. conversing, in which htab will be = Chinese ta (Ancient tap, Karlgren, No. 954), which in Tibetan script occurs many times as tab.
- (i) In case the phrase hkoho-hko-bphyag, l. 101, should signify 'saluted (Tib. phyag, "salutation") with a view to speaking', the same hko would be possible in:

hsehe-hkoho (327, hkho-ho)-hgyan-re-hlab-hko-hgyan ||, 325 'harms as cause were the cause of telling (sc. the narrative)' and the hkhoh-htah, 1. 328, or hkho-hdah, 1. 329, which were 'restrained', or 'damned' (hdam), like the hse-htah, 'injurings', 1. 326, might be 'causings' or 'causers'. This might bring in the well-known Chinese word ko, 'cause'; but perhaps we can work with Tib. hgo, 'beginning', hgyan being obscure.

- (j) Doubtful is ħko in 67 (ħko-se-ħgro), 123 (ħśi-ħwa-ħko, 'only', 'verily'?), 125 (ħldañ-krañ-ħko, 'only'?), 390 (ħko-ħto-swad); also ħkho in 209 (ħkho-ħśañ, 'chief'?), 241 (ħħo-rgam-kho-re), 295 (ħħo-ħkho-ħsog-ge), 217 (kho-sñe). See kho/ħkho in Vocabulary.
- 23. hri, g-ri, hrihi, g-rihi; mehi-°, hdoñ°-, hrañ°-, hswah°-, g-ri; hri-hño, °hkho, °hpañ (hphañ), °hruhu, °hgru; hto, tho; spo; hsehe; sti; hti; hyor; g-yog; gras, hgras, hras; hrde, rdehe; hwad; hci; tho-rgyam; hkuñ; hbu-rwye(rbye); hśañ-ma; hmar-hbab; hroñ; hkad°-, hdzam-hbroñ°, hbo°, hroñ; la, hlaḥ; la-po; gdag; hdzu; (2) hroñ, g-roñ; hyed; hdze, htswe, tswehu; g-ri-ta; htañ = hthañ; mu-hro; hna-hlam; glo-hrañ; rgyen; hrgyañ.

That hri/g-ri, = Tib. ri, 'mountain', is evident. It is natural that in a country of great mountain ranges the word should be frequently mentioned and distinctions should be made: thus, one of the Tibetan texts speaks of gtshug (gtsug)-ri, 'peaked mountains', gyud = rgyud, 'ridges', ri- $ri\hat{n}$ -po, 'long or high mountains', of dbye-che, 'wide expanses', $hphra\hat{n}$ -rub, (probably) 'precipice ledges', ri-bzur-te-bzur, 'mountains winding, winding', and so forth.

In the Nam text we have had \$id(h\$id)-hrihi(g-ri)\$ 'high mountains' (II. 34, 62), \$bbos-hrihi(g-ri)\$, 'big mountains' (II. 290, 291, 293), \$man-hri (hrihi, g-ri)\$ 'large mountains' (II. 302, 308, 309): in I. 168 occurs \$bbyi-hri\$, which ought to mean 'small (see p. 252) mountains', and probably does so mean. In:

hdoń-hri-hldyań-ge-spo-hpod-pod hrań-hri-hldyań-[ge-]hsehe-hwad-hwad, 13-14

the hdon-hri are contrasted with the hran-hri, and the spo, which cannot be different from Tib. spo, 'summit of a mountain', with the hsehe, which likewise = Tib. rtse, 'top', 'peak', 'summit of a mountain', 'house-roof', &c. The hran-hri are evidently the 'self (i.e. by themselves, solitary, single) mountains', since hran = 'self', Tib. ran, pervades the text. The hdon-hri are probably not the 'trench, hole, pit, crater (Tib. don) mountains', but rather the 'face (Tib. gdon/mdons), i.e. contoured, mountains', since the Tibetans shared the universal tendency to see faces, heads, &c., in mountain ridges.

The mehi-g-ri-htale contrasted with sid-g-ri-htor in:

mehi-g-ri-htah-dze-rtah-htsog-hram, 35

is, no doubt, the 'border of the fire-mountain', volcanoes being known in northern Tibet: and the fact that the horse's original capital is placed near a (heavenly?) fire-mountain may explain the references to 'great heat' (dgu-htor, dgu-hldo, ll. 78, 139, 191) in connexion with the fall of the 'Mon-castle' and the earthquake.

As regards the parts of mountains, the hri-hkho; 'mountaintop' (Tib. ri-kha) and hrihi(g-ri, &c.)-hpan(hphan), 'mountain's bosom or lap', have been mentioned supra (p. 263). The 'mountain's-horn' (g-ri-hruhu, l. 21, hrihi-hruhu, l. 293, Tib. ru 'horn') is an expression perhaps not found in Tibetan, though an 'Ox-horn' (Glan-ru) mountain is known.

The passage (ll. 299-301):

hśe-hse-hldoń-hcań-g-ri-sti-hyor-re hri-hno-hdzoń-g-yog-re-rgyań-ge-hrihi-sti-hyor-re

hrim-hldohu-hśań-hyań-hri-hgru-gras-re-hri-hei-hwadhi ||

mentions the g-ri(hrihi)-sti-hyor, the hri-hno, and the hri-hgru. The hyor must be = Tib. yor, seen in tho-yor, 'pyramid of stones heaped up as a votive pile, a cairn' (tho meaning

¹ It could, however, be 'eye(se. sentinel-post)-mountain', the hsteah-hri of Il. 290, 295, the hswah-g-ri of I. 296: see p. 278 and I. 186 hldyan-g-ri ... mehi-hrah.

'boundary', cf. mtshams-tho), i.e. the oft-illustrated obo (Tib. lab-rtse, for la-rtse?) of modern travellers.2 It might seem to follow that sti is the top of a pass or the like; but the meaning 'rest', found in Tib, sti/bsti/bthi (sti-bahi-gnas, 'resting-place') and in the hti of the Nam text, is, no doubt, right, since such obo points are inevitable resting-places. In contrast we have the hrihno-hdzon-g-yog, i.e. 'the castle (hdzon) below (g-yog) on the mountain side or slope (hno = Tib. nos)', whose walls, perhaps (hrgyan = Tib. rgyan, 'wall'), or which, stretching (Tib. rgyan), act as a rest-obo'. Then the hri-hgru, 'mountain corners' (Tib. gru, 'corner', 'angle'), i.e. projecting points (cf. gru-bži, 'square'), or else 'recesses', being alined (gras = hgras, l. 10, 'alined in battle', hras, l. 344, Tib. hgras, 'difference between two parties', gra, 'proper order or arrangement', dgra, 'enemy',) 'keep watch' (hwad) upon those who come (hci = Tib, mchi, 'come', 'go', = Hsi-hsia gce, gceh, Nevsky, No. 144, see pp. 269, 332) 'to or on the mountain'.

The watch (hwad = Tib. hbad, hbod) on the mountain heights is extended in l. 109 to the tho-rgyam, 'boundary slabs': in l. 6 it is, it seems, used metaphorically of fires (mye-hyan-hwad); and in a line quoted supra (hsehe-hwad-hwad) of the summits themselves; nor is it to be doubted that in hwad-hldan-kran (l. 268), on which see infra (pp. 288-90), an ethical watchfulness is signified. All this is the less open to doubt as in one of the Tibetan texts, in a passage treating of a protective supervision of a country by certain divinities, the phrase brag-hwod, 'watching on the rocks', has actually taken, or preserved, the Nam w for b.

A further expression, important for other applications, is seen in the line:

dgu-hldo-htor-ge-hman-g-rihi-hkun ||, 309

'With great heat, the large mountain is hollowed out or caves in' (Tib. khun, 'hole', 'pit', 'cavity', e.g. in sna-khun, 'nostril', brag-khun, 'cleft in a rock').

For the compound brag-khun has had in the Hsi-fan languages a considerable vitality. In the Rgya-ron it is, quite regularly, pra-khi, 'cave'; and in the dialects collected by the Vicomte d'Ollone

¹ Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 274: 11, 361. 1, &c.

3 pra-kha, 'precipice'.

² See Prejevalsky, i, pp. 76, 283 (Yule); Rockhill, p. 126, Diary, pp. 92-3; d'Orléans, op. cit., p. 255; Futterer, i, pp. 354, 366, 390, 402, 421; d'Ollone, pp. 225-6; Tafel, ii, Pl. LIX; Filchner, Om Mani Padme Hum, frontispiece.

it is tchra-tcho (No. 36), tcha-kon (No. 40), haguen (No. 41, Go-lok), huèki (No. 42, Go-lok), tchra, tcha, being stated to mean 'rock' (= Tib. brag). The word hkun is also used of a ruined 'Monbuilding' (hrtsig-mon) in l. 380, and then, l. 382, of friendship (hdzah-hldah), or friends, become 'hollow'. This metaphor is applied, moreover (l. 124), to hldan-kran.

Also connected with mountains are the hbu-rwye-hce-rgyan of

the passage:

g-yog-hśań-ma-hpul-dze-hmar-hbab-ge-hrloho || hbu-rwye-hce-rgyań-dze-hldyo-htor-ge-hnus ||, 15-16

a passage immediately following the verses concerning the hdon-hri and hran-hri: in ll. 50-1 the passage, with the lines inverted and with hrab for hrloho, rbye for rwye, and tor-hnus for htor-ge-hnus, is repeated. Rwye-hce, rbye-hce, can at once be identified with the dbye-che of a Tibetan text, the additional rgyan forming with hce a recurrent phrase = 'of great extent': the Tibetan dbye = 'plain', 'expanse', 'extent'. Then hbu will be = Tib. phu, 'the upper part (opposite of mdah) of a sloping valley', 'the higher ground', being the phu-dan-dan, 'up-vales rising, rising', of the Tibetan manuscript. The form hbu (elsewhere meaning 'head', and etymologically connected, no doubt, with phu), does not create a difficulty, seeing that in the Tibetan manuscripts we find a fair number of cases (byi, dog, gan, &c.) of media in place of aspirate and some (pho, phu, &c.) of the converse.

With this hbu are contrasted the g-yog (Tib. yog/hog), 'below', of the accompanying verse; for this word is applied to a large valley, and, as we have seen (pp. 5-6), a portion of north-eastern Tibet was designated 'the Eight Yogs'. The fact that in the verse the g-yog are 'brimming with filth (Tib. gśań-ba/bśań-ba: in the Berlin fragment śań-ma)', sc. mud, and that they have hmar-hbab, 'cascades', is due to the world-cataclysm. Hrloho, hldyo-htor, and hnus may be reserved: likewise the expressions g-ri-hkruhu-hbro, l. 313 = hri-hkruhu-hbroho, l. 294, gyań-g-ri-hjim, ll. 313-14, hstsah-hrihi, ll. 290, 294 (hri) = hscah-hyer-hri,

11. 296-7.

In l. 296, hswah-g-ri-hto-na, hto is probably = Tib. mtho, 'high' (see supra, p. 248), while hswah has a relation to hstsah/hscah, to be discussed infra (pp. 276 sqq.).

G-ri-ta, in l. 157, is entirely different and means 'payment',

'price' = Tib. ri-ba.

The word hron so patently = Tib. ron, 'defile', 'gorge', on

which see pp. 5-6, that it is unnecessary to discuss the matter. But in:

hban-re-hko-htar-dze-hna-hlam-glo-hran || hdzam-hbron-hron-dze-hdam-to-hbu-hpor, 67-8

we have two phrases, hban-re-hko-htar and hdzam-hbron-hron, which both recur several times (II. 371, 373, 384, 386, 388, 390), and in II. 373-4:

hdzam-hbron-hron-re-hban-hko-htar-dze-hkad-hron-re-rgven are accompanied by a third phase, hkad-hron-re-rgyen, itself recurring in Il. 373, 375, 376, 377. It is natural to connect the phrase 'tame-yak gorge' with the story contained in the text; but this would be an error, as appears from the following facts: From S. C. Das's Tibetan Dictionary (s.v. khun-tshag) we learn that the Tibetans have phrases, khun-tshaq and ri-tshaq, denoting respectively 'yak of the valley' and 'hill-yak belonging to the higher elevations and hill-tops of Tibet'. A 'tame-vak gorge' is therefore a general term for a kind of valley, namely one opening out into spaces where the tame vak is employed. The statement 'each hkad gorge is uphill or steep' (rgyen, cf. Tib. gyen-du, 'uphill', gyen-gzar-po, 'steep ascent', &c.) connects with Tib. gad, 'rock', gad-pa, 'a precipitous cliff of conglomerate such as often walls in the mountain rivers', 'a wide crack in a conglomerate rock', gad-skyibs, 'a rock cavern', gad-rgyal, 'the walls of conglomerate rock through which mountain-torrents have cut their way', gad-phug, 'a cavern or cleft in a conglomerate rock'. A place near to Hgru-gu monastery in Amdo, by name Ka-dron (i.e. Kad-ron) is mentioned in the Geografia Tibeta, p. 54.

The expression 'each hkad gorge is uphill' (rgyen sometimes takes on the sense of 'difficult') shows that the Nam author prefers the lower valleys; and this accords with the statement hna-hlam-glo-hran, 'the home path (Tib. lam) is spirit-joyous (Tib. ran)'. It may help in the interpretation of hban-re-hko-htar-dze, when we shall have decided between the possible meanings of hban.

With hron, 'gorge', 'valley', quite unconnected is the g-ron of: hde-me-htah-g-ron-hyed-ge-ta, 71

'fires of prosperity, diffusing g-ron.'

Hyed, elsewhere, ll. 53, 393, used of emitting fire (me/sme), in the second instance a metaphorical 'fire of hate' $(h \cdot san \cdot sme)$, here diffuses g-ron, which may accordingly be = Tib. gron, 'cold'; and

this will suit the context, since the 'fires' in question are failing. It is, however, conceivable that g-ron here = Tib. gron, 'die', 'death'; the fires are 'expiring'. Though in this passage 'cold' is more apposite, the signification 'death' is acceptable in:

śes-hmad-hdzwehe-re-hpah-hron-hkes, 36

'when the wisdom-low hdzwe, the brave gain death.'

But even here the meaning 'the brave are chilled' is supported by:

śes-hmad-hdzwe-dze-myag-mye-htań ||, 39

'when the wisdom-low hdzwe, the power of fire is rotted.'

The decision depends upon the unascertained signification of hdzwe, which, if = htswe, is again antithetic to 'fire' in:

. . . mog (cloud)-htswe-re-mye-hyan-hwad ||, 6.

If this htswe could be connected with Hsi-hsia hdzu, tsu, 'rain' (Nevsky, No. 92) and the cognates adduced by Laufer (No. 123), we should obtain the apposite sense:

'though clouds rain, the fire also watches'

which would also give point to the two passages with hdzwe. But the paronomasia would demand a second htswe/hdzwe, which, if it meant 'play', 'sport', might be = Tib. rtse/rtsed, and, since in eastern Tibet tshe and tshi are indistinguishable in pronunciation from khye and khyi (cf. p. 299 and Jaeschke Berlin Academy Monatsbericht, 1865, p. 443), might also be = Hsi-hsia mkhhe/mkhwe, 'play' (Nevsky, No. 73). The same signification would suit the tswehu of l. 196 (p. 245).

Clearly antithetic to hron, 'gorge', is the hlah of:

hbo-hron-hrog-re-hlah-hkyan-hras-re-hŝes-hŝi-hdzuhi ||,

'the wooded gorge being a torrent (Tib. grog), the passes (hlah) also lined by the enemy (on hras, hgras, see p. 266), the wise evades¹ (?) death.'

This hlah is evidently = Tib. la, 'pass', and it is so spelled in the following line:

rgyeb-hchi-hro-re-gdag-yan-la-por-hses-hsi-hdzuhi ||, 345.

'if there is a place for going back, though the high pass is conspicuous (gdags) or occupied, the wise evades death.'

Here la-po = Tib. la-po (i.e. *pho), 'a pass over a lofty mountain; also a high peak'. On gdags, 'bright', as applied to mountains,

¹ 'Feigns'? Hdzu = rdzu, 'be disguised', occurs in a document (Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 205: 38, A 2).

see p. 6: but here the word may be connected rather with bdog, 'possess', 'acquire', bdag, 'owner', 'possessor', which sense may be found in other occurrences (pp. 242, 357) of gdag/hdag in the Nam text. The same hlah, 'pass', is perhaps to be seen in:

hlah-gsom-hram . . . lgyoho-ge-htan-mu-hro ||, 10-11.

The reading is partly obscured in the manuscript, and the meaning of lgyoho is unknown.

The passage, II. 301–14, is concerned, as has already appeared, with animal species occupying the mountains. It begins:

hrtah-swa-g-we[-]r[e]-g-ri-hrde-hldah ||, 301

'While the horse is doing swa, the mountain is possessed of hrde.'

This hrde is likely to be identical with rdehe of:

hbehi-tyan-rdehe-ge, 213

where hbehi is a word found elsewhere signifying 'sheep'. If rdehe = 'flock', 'troop', it will be, in sense as well as in form, = Tib. sde, 'class', 'community', 'race', 'tribe' (sde-brgyad, 'eight classes [of demons]', &c.), Hsi-hsia gde, gdeh (Nevsky, No. 45). The passage continues:

rñe-ne-g-ri-dze-hldim-hphu-hman, 301

where hldim-hphu (cf. line 310 hldim-hman-hto, 'hldim were many') is problematic, as are also the hgah-hldon (mist? avalanche?), who are associated with hldim (disappearances?):

hgah-hldon-hran-re-hman-g-ri-hpanna

dgu-ḥldo-ḥtor-ge-ḥmań-g-riḥi-ḥkuṅ ||

hmu-wa-rno-ge-hgah-hldon-hkyud || hgah-hldon-hran-re-hldim-hman-hto ||, 308-11

'The hgah-hldon' being free (? hran, by themselves) on the bosom (Tib. phan, pan) of the big mountain,

With great heat, the big mountain is hollowed out (Tib. khun, 'cave', &c.):

Able to cause cold is the hgah-hldon race.

When the hgah-hldon are free, there are many hldim (?)'

After the hgah-hldon come the hkhu:

hrne-hldah-hro[-]re-hman-hkhu-stan ||, 303

'there being hostile wolves (hro?), the great hkhu (? = Tib. spyan-ku (and °khu) 'wolf') are at the top.'

Then come the bears (hdom and hgre(gre)), the gzu-hbyi, 'little tigers' = asses, and the hglyan(= lkyan, the kiang), who are of

ass race (gzu-hbyi-hkyud). With reference to these hostile creatures severally it is stated (ll. 310–13) that, if they are on the mountain (hri/g-ri/g-rihi), the mountain is (practically) 'not there (sta(stah)-mehi)'.

24. gñim, gñi, hñi; hñi, hñis; hñi-htor, °htsa; sñi; rñi; mog, hmog, gmog; rgya-hñi-ke, hrgyah-hñi-hke (hkehe); hrgyah, hgyah; hkor; ke, hke; hjo, hjoho, hdzoho; hlab; hla, lah; htag; htog, hthog; hchos; hdub; skar; mu; rmu.

Gñim, probably meaning 'day' (Tib. ñin) and conjoined with hti, = 'darkness', has already (p. 236) been noted. And this renders it probable that in:

rta-hso-hnah-yan-gñi-hrdzum-doho ||, 80

 $g\tilde{n}i = \text{Tib. } \tilde{n}i\text{-}ma$ (sometimes $g\tilde{n}i^{\circ}$, 'the sun': 'the sun smiled', hrdzum); for the next verse states that 'when a good (?) man perishes, an inferior man rises' (supra, p. 227), and in II. 81-2:

hśań-re-hśig-dze-hmog-re-hldon,

'when all hostility perishes, every cloud (\$\hbar{h}mog)\departs.'

That \$mog/\hbar{h}mog/gmog\$ means 'cloud' is indicated by antithesis to 'fire' (mye) in:

. . . mog-htswe-re-mye-hyan-hwad ||, 6

'fire watches'; and that meaning is apposite in the other occurrences of the word (ll. 52, 54, 55): very possibly it is somehow connected with Tib. rmugs, 'fog', 'stupid', &c., 'Tangut' rmūkha, 'cloud', mug, '(mental) gloom' (gti-mug, yid-mug, &c.), mun, 'darkness'; and then also with mog, 'dark-colour', and further with rmon, 'be obscured', 'puzzled', rmons, 'deluded', 'delusion': as a translation of Sanskrit megha, 'cloud', it is probably to be seen in the name of the 'retreat Nam-Kan-mog' (mahā-megha), in the Sa-cu region, mentioned in Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, pp. 365, 367; and perhaps Lo-lo mow, is the same word.

Accordingly in:

hmog-hee-rgyan-rgya-hñi-ke-hkor-[re-]hśid, 52-3

'Clouds of great extent perish (héid)—when the rgya-hñi-ke hkor'

we suspect that $h\tilde{n}i$ has to do with the sun, more especially as in l. 199 we find the spelling rgyah- $g\tilde{n}i$ -ke. This expression, with

Hence we may neglect the possibility that gñi-rdzum means 'had their eyes closed' (Tib. hdzum = hdzum, 'smile') in sleep (Tib. gñid)? In 1. 263 (p. 283) rdzum is an epithet of 'fire'.

further variants, hrgyah, hke, hkehe, is to be seen also in Il. 291, 295, 319. The Verb hkor can evidently be = Tib. hkhor, 'go round', 'return', which, in fact, appears elsewhere in the text.

But the expression rgya-hñi-ke, being a whole, might have other explanations; and the syllable hai might, for instance, be connected with Tib. gñis, ñis, 'two', which we have found in the form sni. We might then see in the ke a suffix, akin perhaps to Tib. ka in gñis-ka, gñi-ga, 'the two', gsum-ka, 'the three', lha-ka, 'all five', &c., cf. p. 241. This would yield a quite natural compound, 'the two rgyas', and perhaps the same ke may be seen in na-hke, 'the five' (?), l. 54: see p. 203. The numerous meanings of rgya in Tibetan ('seal', 'mark'; 'animal of the deer class'; 'net', 'trap'; 'extent', 'size', 'plain country'; 'Chinaman'; 'useful'; 'steelyard'; 'beard'), some of them requiring particular suffixes, cannot prevent our inclining to the meaning 'plain', 'extent', which in Tibetan is the most familiar and which suits the phrase hrgyah-hdihi-htron-re, 'travelling to this plain country', in 1. 327, hgyah-hnah-tsur, 1. 391. This idea of 'plane surface' takes in the Tibetan phrase ñi-zlahi-rgya-dkar, 'white planes of sun and moon', the sense of 'large orb', 'disk', which accordingly is given in the dictionaries. Instead, therefore, of denoting the sun in some connexion the word rgya-hñi-ke denotes the sun and moon.

Who (apparently some living creatures) are the h\vec{n}i-htor of 1. 187 is obscure: they are likely to be the htor-h\vec{n}i-htsa-ge, over whom the Great Yak becomes lord in:

htor-hñi-htsa-ge-htor-hbroù-hkhoho, 215–16 and probably not the tor-sñi of the than fields:

hthan-le-tshah-dze-tor-sni-rgam, 219.

sñi/rñi occurs in the Tibetan texts with the meaning 'net', 'trap', which is probably the meaning in 1. 219, since 1. 220 speaks of 'being caught in the toils' (hdru-hjar, see p. 369). Further, the Tibetan manuscripts refer to Sñi mountains in the Skyi country.

But a Verb hāi, probably connected with ñi-ma, 'sun', and meaning 'shine', may be seen in:

hjo-me-hdub-re-hlab-ma-hñi, 67

'When the hjo fire sinks,1 the hlab does not shine'

¹ In the Tibetan Manuscript bdub seems to be Preterite of bdub (usually 'be fatigued') in this sense, which usually is expressed by nub.

which seems to be directly contradicted by:

hjo-me-hdub-re-hlab (possibly hla)-me-hñis ||, 70

'When the hjo fire sinks, the hlab(hla) fire is ablaze'

which contradiction may, however, be due to mistaken omission of the vowel-mark (e) over the ma of 1.67.

There is a strong temptation to find in the antithesis hjo/hlab a contrast between 'sun' and 'moon'. And, in fact, in the same general context we find a clear reference to the moon: in l. 73, repeated with a slight variation in ll. 75-6, we read:

hwa-ste-hge-dze-hla(l. 75 lah)-hram-hte ||

'with exhausted (hwa-ste, see p. 337) good fortune the moon (and not the sun) accords'

and the rendering is confirmed by a reference to fire in the same context:

hde-me-htah-g-ron-hyed-ge-ta-hwa-ste-htah ||, 71-2

'the fires of prosperity, making cold emissions, are exhausted', and because in 1. 75 it is said that:

hwa-ste-hgehe-dze-dgu-htor-hbyi

'with exhausted good fortune the great heat [becomes] small'.

Thus for 'moon' we have hla, lah; and la is, in fact, the most widely attested Tibeto-Burman form with that signification. In Tibetan zla-ba, indeed, the ba may not be the common suffix, since there are in the various languages, as has been noted by Dr. Laufer (No. 12), forms such as Lo-lo sla-ba, hlo-bo, &c., which may not be loan-words from Tibetan. But nothing would justify a monosyllabic hlab, for hla-ba, in Nam or the related languages; and the hlab of the text could be explained only as a scriptural miswriting, not indeed unparalleled in the manuscript, of b in place of h in a form hlah. Even so, it would be difficult to discover either in Tibeto-Burman or in Chinese (jih, in old Tibetan script zir) an etymology for a hjo, jo, = 'sun'. We must therefore seek a different antithesis.

With the signification 'chieftain' (Tib. jo/co/gtso, &c.) hjo is evident in:

myi-rgye-mye[-]r[e]-hchos-hyo-hjo, 153-4

'if there is no great man, the initiator is the chief'

where hchos, which in Il. 158-9 also means 'beginning' (+hyo, 'manage', 'carry on', see p. 132), is the same word as cho of one of the Tibetan manuscripts, meaning both 'beginning' and 'chief-

tain': it may be itself connected etymologically with hjo. The same hjo, 'chief', is seen in:

hyan-tsa-hjo-dze-hyan-ge-hgroms, 63-4

'under the good as chiefs the good flourish (hkroms)'

trog-hjo-rñe-dze-pyi-rjes-ne-hcer, 201-2

'under an evil enemy chief a memorial looks terrible to the good'

hphah-ma-rah-ge-htsah-hjo-hdzin, 73-4

'substitutes (sc. children) for father and mother hold the chieftainship'.

Whether this is the meaning of hjo in ll. 372, 387, 389, we may for

the present leave undetermined.

But an antithesis 'chieftain' (or 'leader')/'speaking' (hlab), though in some possible context it might be found to work, could not bear repetition as in:

hban-hrehe-hkhehe-hban-hre-hgehe-na jo-re-hgehe-hlab-re-hge, 251-2

'Every hban a gain, every hban a joy,

Every jo a joy, every hlab a joy' sta-ban-rpag-re-hyah-me-bbyam-re

jo-me-hbyam-re-hlab-me-hbyam-na || ° ||, 252-3.

'There, every ban being made low, front (or face) fire mild (or abundant),

jo-fire mild, hlab-fire mild'.

hjo(hdzo?)-chi-te-re-hlab-hñan-hyah-htah-hldyan-hro-hpehi||, 385-6.

'When hjo comes, hlab-words (or 'hearing, Tib. ñan?) correspond (?), is mark (or example) (?) of hldyan-country'. (The only authority for ñan='words', beyond its appropriateness with hlab, being Hsi-hsia nian (Laufer, No. 167)).

Another certain signification of hjo/hdzo is 'eat', corresponding to Tib. za, zos, bzah, bzos.¹ A Nam example of this in the form, perhaps Imperative, gzo will be quoted infra (pp. 334-5): the following may be added:

rne-hpo-hldo-ge-hkehu-prom-hjo, 177

'the fiend (or enemy) braves ate the hkehu-making'

hrne-hpo-hne-ge-hkohu-prom-hdzoho, 361-2

'the wicked fiend (or enemy) braves ate the speaking'.

Here the forms hjo and hdzoho, occurring in two different state
' On Nam z/dz see infra, pp. 334-5.

ments of the same incident, are clearly identical (cf. p. 335), the alternation j/dz being frequent in all Tibetan writing and scripturally easy. The rendering 'ate' is justified not only by the previously (pp. 254, 256) discussed references to 'milking out' and 'snatching' the fire (sc. power) of speech, but also by the use of the kindred form hdzah in:

hban-hldah-hne-ge-hkehu-me-hdzah ||, 170 'good authorities eat the fire of hkehu'

which occurs in the context of the references to the 'milking out' and 'snatching' the fire of speech. What hkehu is may be considered later.

These examples do, indeed, substantiate the expression hlab-me, 'fire of speech', and in antithesis thereto a 'fire of eating' (hjo-me) would be possible. But between 'eating' and 'speaking' the antithesis is not sufficiently natural for frequent recurrence, and in the passage ll. 385-6 it is quite unsatisfactory. What is really required as a contrast to the 'fire of speech' is the 'fire of action'; and this is available, if we understand hjo/jo as equivalent to Tibetan bzo, 'make', 'manufacture', 'work', 'craft', 'fashion'. It is possible that in the form hjoho this is to be found in:

na-htsah-ste(= htsas-te)-dze-hldyo-hthor-ge-hnus-dze-g-rahhyos-htag-ge-hjoho ||, 33-4

'On the harvested fields . . . the earthquake acted as a mill (Tib. hthag)'

mills for grinding or threshing corn, perhaps worked by a rope (Tib. thag, 'rope', thag-bzo, 'rope making'), having been known in Amdo in the eighth century A.D. (Tib. Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 40).

If, then, we can understand the hjo/jo in hjo/jo-me as meaning 'action', 'work', we obtain an antithesis between 'fire of action' and 'fire of speech' which seems adequate in all the passages. The same contrast between action and speech may be seen in l. 137:

hbri-re-hrdyam-re-hkhah-hldah-hnahghi hdzohu-ro-hldi-re-hjohu || hwa-hkah

'When females are restrained (hrdyam, p. 350), talkers have voice:

This being a place for males, action is the talk.'

The word \$\hban/ban\$, recurring in some of the above passages, requires a more particular consideration, see provisionally p. 346. In the present connexion it seems appropriate to take note of one or two other terms related to the heavens.

Skar, 'star' = Tib. skar-ma, Hōrpa sgrē, Tākpa, kar-ma, Mānyak kraḥ, Mo-so khō, ki, kū, kō, and various forms in Lo-lo, does not seem to present difficulty. The sole occurrence of skar, (l. 191) rnam-skar, 'threatening, or alarming star', has been quoted, supra p. 244. The word mun, l. 33, is likewise a ἄπαξ εἰρημένον: though it would naturally be compared to Tib. mun, 'darkness', the passage is not sufficiently clear for a decision.

A mu = 'sky', as equivalent to the widely evidenced mo/mon, of Hsi-fan and Tibeto-Burman generally (see supra, pp. 88, 98-9, and for Hsi-hsia mo, Laufer, No. 34), would be acceptable in Nam. It seems not to exist in Tibetan: mu-sans, 'sky', may mean 'pure boundary' and contain the word mu, 'boundary', 'limit', 'margin', and rmu-thag, 'rmu-rope', 'a rope by which the ancient kings and queens of Tibet were reputed to ascend to heaven', contains a rmu which might have some other explanation. The Nam text has:

hmu-hrhu-skhrud-dze-mor-htan-[hgras] ||, 9-10
'On the hmu, put to flight (Tib. skrud) in pain, the evil power was arrayed'

and there is an antithesis to 'earth' (see infra, p. 329) which renders it probable that mu = 'sky'. Probably the same hmu recurs in l. 11, hmu-hro.

Nam rmu, again, has only two instances, in both of which, however, an equivalence to Tib. mu, 'boundary', 'limit', is probable: the instances are:

hsaḥ-chad-rmu[-]r[e]-hkoḥu-prom-g-yehe

'the earth having its boundaries fixed (chad), speech was distributed (?)'

hbyi-hri-hgan-ge-chi-hrmu-hphor || re, 167-8

'all the little hills having boundaries for their going released'.

Cf. 1. 353:

gzu-hdro-hphor-[re]-hchi-hdo-hdyan 'the ass, being released to go (hdro-hphor), started to depart'.

25. swah, hswah, swa; °g-ri, °hram, °hrśan; hsah, gsah; °hldah, °htsah; °g-yer (hyer); hstsah-, hscah-, hyer; °hldah, °hri (hribi); htsah-htsah; htsa-pho; gtsan, htsan; hnom; hrgu; gzo; rlehi, hldehi, hlde, hldehe; tho; °rgyam; hjim, hdzom; hrim-re-hldohu.

The form swah/swa is used in a number of clauses of the type: hrtah-swah-g-we[-]r[e], 164, 301 = rtah-hswah-g-wehe, 298, where the subject is the horse, and the verb is sometimes, as we see, g-we, 'make', 'do', while elsewhere it is hkom/gkom (ll. 175/ 222), hldi[r] (l. 174), hphyegs/hpeg (ll. 176, 360); mor, not a verb. but probably = 'bad', occurs in l. 173, and in l. 359 has perhaps been lost through the defect in the manuscript. There can be no doubt that in all these cases swah/swa, has the same meaning. It cannot be swa, the most usual Tibeto-Burman equivalent of Tib. so, 'tooth', which does, however, occur in the Nam text as suca: that would not accord with the verbs g-we, hkom, 'make', 'do', 'accomplish'. The same consideration excludes \$a/\$wa, 'stag', śa/śwa, 'blood', rtswa, 'grass', tshwa, 'salt'; sbah/dbah/hbah/ dbas/sbas, 'magician'; so, 'earth', 'place' (in some connexions); and we can think only of so/gso/gson, 'live', 'nourish', &c., sos(-ka) 'heat', so, 'comfort'-all these being perhaps etymologically identical-and so, 'watch', 'spy', with which so in so-mtshams, 'boundary', i.e. 'watch-border', and in so-kha, 'frontier guard and toll-station', is similarly identical. In favour of the last is the fact that so-kha is actually recorded (Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, i, p. 275, No. 9) in the form swa. This meaning harmonizes, further, with the Predicate hram, 'agreeing' or 'united (in)', l. 288, and with mor, 'bad (in)', and hrśań, 'stern', or 'violent', which in Il. 318-21, in the same context with mor, is applied to swah.

It is therefore to be understood that the horse, after his retreat to the hgam, was employed in the service of a man, viz. the hbos (supra, p. 231), as 'watch', 'guardian', 'police': and this is, indeed, certain, being stated also in another form. In:

hrtah-swah-g-we[-]r[e]-hbos-hsah-hldah hbos-hnom-hsah-gtsan-hrgu-ma-gzo ||, 164-5

'The horse keeping guard, the master is (really) landowner':
'The crops of the land enjoyed by the master thieves do (or shall) not eat'.

hsah = Tib. sa, 'land'; gtsah = Tib. rtsah, 'crop', as in l. 159; hnom = Tib. nom, 'enjoyments' ('In Amdo all articles, substances, properties (movables) are called nom-pa'), frequent in the phrase gya-nom, 'abundance', 'wealth and power'; hrgu = Tib. rku/rkun (in the Tibetan manuscripts also rgun), 'steal', 'thief', p. 233; gzo = Tib. za, zos, bzos (zan-zos), 'eat'.

¹ Cf. 1. 378, heah-htsan?

Elsewhere the horse is said to be hsah-g-yer, 'awake (Tib., &c., yer, "not asleep", g-yer-po, "expert", "wise")1 on the land':

rta-hsa-g-yer-dze, 330 = rta-hsah-g-yer-ge, 346

which expression is elsewhere (Il. 141, 267) used in evidently the same sense, but without reference to the horse. This imports also another term, since in I. 250 the expression is *hstsah-hyer*, not really different (ts and c being constantly confused in manuscripts) from the *hscah-hyer* of I. 250 (applied to the horse) and Il. 296–7: in I. 298:

rtah-hswah-g-wehe-hbos-hstsah-hldah

the hbos is no longer hsah-hldah, 'landowner', but hstsah-owner'.

Unfortunately, hstsah also is ambiguous. Shall we understand that the hbos 'has his watch(man)' (Tib. btsa, btsas, 'watch', 'scrutinize', a verb well known in Central Asia)² or 'has his harvest' (Tib. btsah-ma, rtsas-ma, btsas-ma)? We clearly cannot understand 'his offspring' (Tib. btsas) or 'his wages' (Tib. btsas). It seems that the meaning 'watch' has strong support; for in Il. 290, 295, we have the hstsah-hri (hrihi), which must be equivalent to the hswah-g-ri, 'watch mountain' of 1. 296 and the htsa-pho of 1. 291 (see infra, p. 279), and at the same time proves that the hstsah-hyah-hthan of 1. 288 contains the same hstsah. Provisionally also it is probable that the same hstsah is to be seen in hyu-hstsah-kyim (hkyim), Il. 345, 350, 351. A doubt remains in regard to hstsah-hbrad-hrdag, Il. 213-14, where 'smite' (Tib. rdeg) 'harvest-snatchers' is more likely.

Who then are the hrlehi, whose hswah-hram, 'accord in watching', is mentioned in l. 288, and who can scarcely be other than the hldehi of ll. 318-21, whose hswah, 'watch', may be hmor, 'bad' (l. 318), or hrśań, 'stern', 'violent', ll. 319, 320, 321. These hldehi

are, no doubt, the hlde, hldehe of:

hlde-ge-hgru-ma-rman, 77, 'the hlde dreamed of hgru-ma' hlde(hldehe)-ge-htah-hldon, 370, 371, 372, 'let hlde (prosperities?) return'.

A word lde, meaning (a) 'treasury', 'storehouse', (b) 'warm one-self', 'be warmed', appears in the dictionaries; and also Lde, 'a

² Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, pp. 223-13, 251. B 1, &c.

One of the Tibetan MSS. has this word with the r- Prefix, rtsas.

¹ This yer, g-yer, perhaps preserved in Hörpa ta-ryen, 'wake', is probably an extension of ye, 'alert', in ye-myig, 'alert-eye' and ye-ses, 'alert-knowledge'.

prefixed tribal title which some of the early kings of Tibet had assumed'. The late Professor A. H. Francke, who translates (Antiquities of Indian Tibet, ii, p. 80) 'the Eight Lde (beauties, lde/rde/bde) of the earth', expressed the opinion that lde, as found alternating with bde, in the names of late kings in western Tibet, was 'only a dialectical form of the word Bde, 'blessing, happiness'. While attached to the names of prehistoric rulers in Tibet, it was not neglected by their historical successors of the seventh to eighth centuries, Khri-lde Gtsug-brtan, Khri-sron Ldebtsan, &c., including Khri-lde Sron-btsan, = Sron-btsan Sgampo, himself. It is, therefore, a very ancient designation, to be compared, perhaps, with Srī, 'beauty', 'prosperity', in Indian names, and to analogous terms in other Oriental spheres: conceivably it is, in fact, connected with lde, 'be warm, warmed'. The same word may with probability be seen in Hsi-hsia ldeh/ Idih/Idi, 'kingdom', 'futurity', 'power', 'ought' (Nevsky, Nos. 11, 133) = li (Laufer, No. 139), certified as meaning 'rich and of high rank' and occurring in an official title, wei li.1

Accordingly, the hlde who supervise may be the 'powers' generally. In l. 288 the rlehi associated, with the hyan, 'good'. mor, 'bad', hkru, 'commons', rta, 'horse', and in antithesis to the sli, are likely to be mortal, if not actually human, beings: and in Il. 318-21 the same is probably the case with the hldehi, who are stated to have appointed a 'Thousand-[district-]commander' (ston-hpon, on which see p. 234), unless the expression is metaphorical. But it is also said (l. 319) that the rgya-hñi-hke are the 'hldehi of stern watch' (swah-rsan), and in l. 295 they are said to meet (hdzom) on every 'watch-height', htsa-phor[e] (cf. la-po, p. 269): in accordance with what has been elicited above this can only mean that the supervisors of all things are the sun and moon. In the passage, l. 319, mention is made of their circling all round (hrim-re-hldohu); and the expression 'beneath the hrgyah-hñi-hke' (hrqyah-hñi-hke-q-yog) reminds us of the Tibetan ñi-hog, 'below the sun' or 'sun below', concerning which there is sometimes a doubt whether it means 'western countries' or 'countries' generally (Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, i, p. 21, n. 2). The outcome seems to be that the rlehi/hldehi/hlde, are the 'authorities', 'powers', or 'blessednesses', and sometimes comprise mundane, sometimes superior, powers.

Perhaps the same lde may be seen in the lie of Menia ya-lie, 'good', am-lie, 'bad'.

The expression tho-rgyam in:

tho-rgyam-ge-hwad-re, 109, 'watching the boundaries'

must correspond to the repeated mtshams-tho-phyag-rgya-can, (or rgya-can), 'boundary with a hand-mark (or seal)', of Central-Asian Tibetan (Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, pp. 129-40, 274, 361-5). But, since there is no special reason for identifying a rgyam with rgya (outside their equivalence in rgyam(lgyam)-tshwa = rgya°, 'a kind of rock salt'), it is prudent to see in rgyam a connexion with g-yam, 'slab of stone', 'roof-slate', and gyam, 'a shelter, recess in a rock', and to think of a stone slab as a boundary mark. Who are the Hjim-li-li and Pa-la-la, who are in 1. 109 to keep the watch, is not apparent. There may be some connexion with:

gyań-g-ri-hjim-hňo-hkhog-re-hphah ||, 313-14.

A different tho applied in I. 132 to the 'black-back' and in I. 374 (htho) to hpah-hwe, 'brave deeds (doers)' is, no doubt = Tib. mtho, 'high': and the same has been suspected (p. 248) in regard to hdyan-hto, I. 210, g-ri-hto, I. 296, phyan-hto, I. 374.

In l. 42, where the horse is not in question:

hsah-htsah-hdzań-dze-hklom-ge-htul, 'under wise hsahhtsah the hklom² are restrained'

it seems that hsah-htsah, repeated in 1. 44 as htsah-htsah, must be understood as hsah-hstsah, 'land-watching'. There is no difficulty in this; for—to overlook the confusion shown in the variation of the phrase—the s in stsah, like the b and r in the Tibetan equivalents, is a Prefix, and the b was originally, no doubt, attached only

¹ Since in l. 156 mention is made of collection of hjim-ta serviceable for wounds:

rma-g-yog-rno-ge-hjim-ta-hthus

and since Tib. hjin is 'a mineral substance rubbed on old sores' and hjim is 'mud', 'clay', it is likely that hjim here refers to the old and inveterate Ch'iang practice of collecting in the mountains herba and mineral drugs, which are used and sold to the Chinese (see Rockhill, p. 132; Edgar, p. 65; Fergusson, p. 231 (photograph); Tafel, ii, pp. 248-9): a habit inherited by the Lamas (Huc and Gabet, ii, pp. 93-5). In Sanskrit also the Himālaya is traditionally the home of drugs. This may explain the phrase g-ri-hjim, 'mountain medicaments'.

Hjim-li-li-pa-la-la may conceivably mean 'drug-collectors professedly, really fighters', which would harmonize with the no-hkhog-re-hphah, drug-collectors openly, secretly fighters of I. 314. The syllables li-li, perhaps suggesting something small or sly, appear in the Tibetan name (phri-li-li) of the lagomus and in si-li-li 'sound of rain'.

Perhaps some kind of superhuman creatures, since one of the Tibetan manuscripts speaks of a 'klum god' and a 'klum fiend'. to the Aoristic form btsas. There may well have been an original non-Aoristic form htsha, represented by the Nam htsah (perhaps also by Tib. tsha-kha, 'target'). Without mention of hsah, 'land', we have in l. 268:

htsah-hdzan-hyah-ge-hwah-ne-hbrah ||

'With wise supervisors above good work (?) flourishes' (cf. p. 339).

Hsah = 'land', recurs in 1. 314, and perhaps in 1. 41. The form gsah is seen in 1. 333 gsah-rkah, 'steep land', and in:

gsah-re-htsah-re-hrah-ge-hldohu-hjam-rho ||, 276-7

'[in] the places, both lands (estates) and crops (Tib. btsa, 'harvest'), were mild-minded groups (?)'.

Concerning hldohu, see pp. 322-3, and cf. hwah-hrho-hjam, p. 339.

hme, me, sme; mye; mehi, hmehi; rme; gśeg, hśeg; hgyi; hcan, can, chan; °sme, °rdzum; śe-, gse-, hrno-, -can (hcan); hpuhi, hphuhi; hphu-hklo, pu-glo (hlo); hdram; hmu; rgyeb; hdro; hkus; hmar-me; hkah; gte.

It is unnecessary to prove that me, hme (in l. 171 hmehe), already noted in so many instances, means 'fire' = Tib. me, &c., &c. But it may be added that it never appears to mean anything else, except in:

htsog-hram-hme-dze-htor-htas-hproms, 121-2

in which hme will be shown infra (p. 292) to signify 'is not', Mye, which in Tibetan orthography of the period would be the regular writing of me, is used in a number of clear instances (ll. 6, 39, 102, 195, 197 (hmye), 357) to signify likewise 'fire'; and the only frequent examples to the contrary (ll. 129, 153, 241, 365, 366) are of the type smyi-hnu-mye-re, l. 241, already quoted as meaning 'if man's power is not'. The negative hme/mye occurs only as a verb, equivalent to Tib. med, 'is not', 'is non-existent': it is not used in the sense of '-less', as is Tib. med in stobs-med, 'strength-less', and the like.

To the occurrences of mye, 'is not', we must add the instances (ll. 129, 153, 365, 366) where in accordance with what has been stated above (pp. 174 sqq.) myer, occupying the caesura position and functioning as a disyllable, has to be read as mye-re. There is no otherwise occurring myer.

The form mehi/hmehi, on the other hand, normally means 'eye', e.g. in the designation mehi(hmehi)-klu-hcah, in mehi-ra,

mehi-spa, &c. The i in Hsi-hsia mei, 'eye', has been noted by Laufer (No. 53). In a number of cases, however, exemplified by:

dgu-hldo-htor-ge-su-me-hmehi hrah-we-rtah-ge-so-hnah-mehi ||, 114-15 'With great heat who kindles fire?

'The horse giving place, the so-hnah is non-existent'

we see that, in combination with the sentence terminating hi, mehi can represent either me, 'fire', or me, 'is not'. The latter recurs in ll. 156, 311, 312, 313; the former, which is, as we see, a casual experiment ('fires fire'), does not seem to recur; but it is well paralleled by hmuhi in me-hmuhi, 'cools fire' (l. 183).

It becomes therefore a question whether mehi, 'eye', does not similarly contain the enclitic hi discussed supra (pp. 190-2); and the answer seems to be that it does. Putting aside, as inconclusive, the cases (ll. 25, 185, 186) where the mehi/hmehi, is final in its clause, we find only compounds mehi-ra(hrah) ll. 78, 186, 369, 'g-ri, l. 35, 'spa, 'spehi, ll. 151, 370, 'cha, l. 352, 'hpa, l. 272, 'klu-hcha (hcah), ll. 150, 161, 218, 343, and

mehi-hgab-hldo-ge, 155, 'with eyes covered up'.

There does not seem to be reason for distinguishing these from other cases, such as hrah-hwehi (and hwe)-hrtah, where we have supposed (pp. 190-2) the presence of an enclitic hi. What seems to be decisive here is the fact that there appears to be a certain instance of mye (i.e. me), 'eye', which form is in fact, that attributed in the Tibetan manuscripts (supra, p. 131) to the Nam language (Mye-kru). The instance is mye-hpehi, l. 212, which probably means 'eye-sparkle' or 'eye-ornament' (see p. 356) and to be not different from the mehi-spa, 'spehi, of ll. 151, 370, and perhaps the hmehi-hpah of l. 272: in l. 211, re-mye-hpahi, the meaning 'fire' is not impossible. It must, however, be admitted that an independent instance of mehi conversely meaning 'fire' is not apparent, unless mehi-cha, l. 352, should happen to be = Tib. me-cha, 'flint'.

Sme usually occurs in relation to me, 'fire'. In ll. 282, 283-4 we have:

hśeg-sme-ge-hrim-hdzom

which seems to mean 'meeting lines' (sc. circles) of burning fires (sc. torches?)', with sme = 'fire' and hseg. The word hseg, again, raises difficulty. There is a phonological objection to its equivalence to Tib. sreg, 'burn', which meaning is most appropriate

here and in l. 159. In l. 181 we have acquiesced (p. 155-6) in an equation to Tib. gśegs, 'go', which in l. 330 might also suit gśeg/hśeg; but, unless the compound gśeg-sme has some special sense, that will not serve in regard to hśeg-sme here. This point must therefore be left obscure. Other occurrences of sme reinforce the notion of fire, thus:

dgu-hldo-htor-re-hra-we-rtah

rgyed-hran-sme-re-hkhar-hgyi-ñes ||, 191-2 'The heat being great, the horse gave place:

Rgyed being itself a fire, the town's power (?)¹ was destroyed'. hrgyed-hsan-sme-hyed-re, 393, 'emitting a hate-fire of rgyed'.

An occurrence in l. 342 is affected by a doubtful reading in the verse (mye probably for rgyed).

Sme differs, perhaps, from me by containing a verbal notion, 'a blaze'. This appears clearly in:

gsas-paḥi-hdzo-hdza-can-sme-hme-hkeḥi ||

g-rah-nag-hbo-gyań-chań-rdzum-me-g-wehi ||, 262-3

'children as good as their fathers (or as braves) gained an allblazing fire'

'.... made an all-smiling fire'.

Here the expressions can-sme, chan-rdzum, correspond to the Tibetan can-rig, can-ses, 'all wise', 'all knowing'. We might connect can with cans-po, 'clever', gcan-po 'clever'; and this is, no doubt, correct, but not directly. It is probable that can = bcan, 'comprising', 'comprehensive' (bcan-rgya, 'extensive comprehension' or 'comprehensive extent'), which is really the acrist of the Verb hchan, bcan, bcans, 'hold'. The Verb appears in close vicinity in:

hsas-hnah-hdag-chi-phyer-chan-hson ||, 260-1 'children who had sickness were tended (hson = Tib. gson), being supported-held (chan).

The signification 'clever' appears in cases where can is not the first member of its compound, in:

rgyed-hsan-rgam-can, 36, 'disunity clever in secretly entering company' (p. 244)

and in l. 91 śe-chań, 'clever in wisdom', l. 48 gse-hcań, 'clever in harm', l. 49, hrňo-hcań, 'clever in power', though here the sense

¹ hgyi recurs in l. 346 with hyu, perhaps = Tib. yul, 'country', 'village'. Is it = Hsi-hsia hgi, 'strength' (Nevsky, no. 118)? or is it connected with Tib. bgyid and so means 'business'? or = Chinese i (Jap. gi, Karlg., 204)?

of 'holding' would suffice. Very possibly the force of the word in do-ldo-hdzo-chañ, 1. 76, hpus-hphya-myi-cañ, 1. 298, hśe-hse-hldon-hcañ, 1. 299, is similar. On cañ, 'city', ll. 118, 210, see supra, p. 245.

Rme is a quite different word. It is used only in the repeated (ll. 124, 232, 337, 340, 342) phrase htor-hrta-rme-ge, always associated with something undesirable, as in:

htor-hrta-rme-ge-hso-hnah-stor ||, 231-2

'the great horse being rme, the hso-hnah is lost'.

The restriction to the particular phrase excludes an understanding of rme as = me, 'is non-existent'; but rme would be a regular equivalent of Tib. rme, 'spot', 'blemish', physical or moral, which in one of the Tibetan manuscripts and elsewhere is spelled dme (dmer-hgyur, 'becomes spoiled', used of flesh corrupting); and it may express the loss of prestige to the horse due to his desertion of his capital (unless it should be that, contrary to what we elsewhere understand, the horse had been killed by the yak, as in the Tibetan account, and had literally become carrion). We cannot take the Nam sme (supra) for a divergent form of this rme; yet, on the other hand, the Tibetan has a sme (in sme-khab = a particular under-garment, and elsewhere), equivalent to its rme, dme.

The word for 'fire' with s- Prefix seems to occur in a Tibetan document (*Tib. Literary Texts*, &c., ii, p. 397: A 4), but has not elsewhere been found, unless Mānyak sa-meḥ is an instance.

In l. 40 we read:

hphu-hklo-hsad-dze-hnah-me-hmyi ||

'if the hphu-hklo be destroyed, the place (or house?) has no fire'.

Here we must necessarily think of Tib. hbud, phu, phus, dbu, 'blow', me-phu, 'blow the fire', hbud-hdun, 'trumpet', also 'bellows', more especially as that phu occurs in the Central-Asian Documents (vol. ii, p. 224). In fact, the hphu-hklo must signify 'bellows', modern Tibetan sbud-pa. An Amdoan form of this implement is described by Rockhill in his Diary (p. 11), and others are illustrated in a plate facing p. 96, and Filchner, Das Rätsel..., Pl. 44, while in regard to Tibet generally reference may be made to S. C. Das's Dictionary, s.v. sbud-pa. This being so, we can see that the āπaξ εἰρημένον hklo is simply the word glo, 'lungs', 'mind', which is found in the Nam text (ll. 68, 93, 157), and that hphu-hklo is literally 'blow-lungs': we can see, further, that the phrase

¹ In the Berlin fragment rme-ma, mentioned in (Il. 4-5) in company with san-ma, 'filth' (supra, p. 223), will contain the same rme.

hran-pu-glo, l. 116 = ran-pu-hlo, l. 135, means 'himself his own bellows (sc. inspirer)'; possibly

tsig-mon-we-ge-htsah-hpu-hloho, 381

may mean

'the Mon builders are the bellows'.

Phu, in the sense of 'blowing' must now be seen in:

hno-re-hlo-ge-hkyi-hdzam-hphuhi, 275-6

'in friendly troops the dogs mildly panted'

rgyeb-hphuhi-hton-re-hyah-wa-hkan, l. 190

'if the rear emits a breath, the front is full of wa' (cf. l. 282, rgyeb-hpuhi-hpuhi).

And with this and the notion of 'blowing' a fire well agrees the antithesis to hmu, 'cold', in:

hdram-hmu-hdon-htor-sku-hphu-hti, 103-4

'the stiff (hdram' = Tib. tram, p. 251) cold gone (come?), the body-blowing (breath) stops'

rno-mu-rgyeb-re-hran-pu-glo-re, 116-17

'capacity covered up or kept back by cold (lack of spirit), himself his own bellows'

(rgyeb = Tib. hgebs, hkheb, khyebs; cf. ñe-hkyeb-hkyeb, l. 17, 'evil spreads over, spreads over'; or = rgyeb, as supra, p. 228?)

hphu-hphu-mu[-]r[e]-hdzu-hdro-hkus, 352 (cf. l. 274, p. 331)
'his blow, blow, being cold, the ass desired (Tib. hkhu) to go
(probably with a paronomasia on dro, 'heat', 'longed for
(hkhu) heat', which pun recurs in:

hdro-hbron-prom-ge-hkohi-me-htul, 169, 170.

'the yak being made to go, his fire of speech was quelled')

and, again in connexion with the ass, in:

lkyań-hzu-hrno-re-h[na]ń-hdro-mo

hśo-hkog-rno || re-hnan-hdro-hmo || stor-hkho-hrno-re-hnan-hdro-thar

hmo[-]re-bzah-re-hse-spye-hkyan ||, 188-90

'The rkyang (ass) being capable, the female [horse] runs within (or 'has an inner heat'):

Capable of concealed háo (copulari), the female horse runs within . . .

When her ruler is lost, the inner heat escapes;

¹ In 1. 31 (and possibly here?) the spelling is htram.

Woman or wife, a matron is a summer (spye, pp. 145-6) of mischief'.

To the metaphorical applications of the notion 'fire' must, it seems, be added those presented in the passage

hmar-me-hkah-ge-hrdzah-hgo-hpo || gte-me-hkah-ge-dam-rma-hbron ||

gci-me-hśi-ge-hbehi-bah-hbu || hrug ||, 46-7

'When lamp (Tib. mar-me, 'oil-fire', 'lamp') fire is scarce (? = Tib. dkah or kha), friends leave (hpho, 'pass away') the place (hgo);

'When navel-fire (sc. appetite, Tib. lte) is exhausted, the yak

begs to be tied (hobbled for the night');

'When travel-fire (energy) declines (ħśi), sheep and oxen have bowed heads' (see p. 149)

27. hldan, ldan; "rgye, "rman, "rdze, "hkan, "hphyar (hphyer, phyer, pyer), "pyi (phyi), "hkran (kran); ske, rke; hstan; hdun; hsad; hwe; hnar; hrwehi; hko; spo; hnam; sla; hsah; dgu, hgu.

In the sense of 'wood', 'stick', the word *bldan*, evidenced in l. 159, has cognates widely spread in Tibetan and Tibeto-Burman.¹ Further occurrences in the Nam text may be recognized in:

rgon-hee-rgye-dze-hldan-rgyu-htam ||, 59-60

'in a desert of great extent stick-material is a mere tale (? Tib. gtam)';

cf. the reference in one of the Tibetan manuscripts to the single stick standing up in the than-plain. The 'big-stick' of government (hldan-rgye) has been noted (p. 245) in l. 209: and the hldan-rman, 'wooden monument' of l. 27, = hldan-hkhan, 'wooden house' (cf. Tib. śiń-khan), may refer to the tomb with upstanding wooden posts described and illustrated in Sir Aurel Stein's Innermost Asia (i, pp. 264-7, Illustrations Nos. 168-9).

Initial ld- is not rare in Tibetan. It is found alternating with l-(ldan/lan, 'rise', ldon/lon, 'blind'), d- (ldum-po/dum-po, 'piece', ldab/hdab, 'fold', ldam/hdam, 'mud', ldig/dig, 'stammer', &c.), zl- (zlog/ldog/log, 'turn away', zlug/ldug/blug, 'pour'), lh- (ldad/lhad, 'adulterate', ldug/lhug, 'pour', ldon/lhon/glon, 'give back'). Presumably the history is complex, some of the roots being originally d-roots, others l-roots, and variation of Prefixes also intervening, so that occasionally we find m- (mdons, 'blind'), s-

¹ For occurrences in dialects of Burmese see L. F. Taylor, Journal of the Burma Research Society, xi, pp. 89 sqq., Table II A, 'firewood'.

(ldum-ra/sdum-ra, 'garden'), or g- (ldu-gu/gdu-gu, 'ring'). Lt-has, beside the above-noted confusions with ld-, independent contacts with lh-(ltun/lhun, 'fall'). The antiquity of ld- in Tibetan has been illustrated in connexion with the word lde (pp. 278-9); and from outside regions of the north-east and east we have early examples in proper names, such as Ldon, Mug-ldem, Zag-ldom.

In the Nam text the word hldi, 'this', = Tib. hdi, is several times (ll. 107, 184, 198, 391 (?)) written in the Tibetan way; and, on the other hand, the Tibetan hdi occurs in the sole Tibetan sentence (l. 180) as hldi. Hence the Nam ld-may be credited with all the connexions of Tib. d-.

One meaning of Tib. Idan is 'side', seen in sgo-ldan, 'each side of the door', whence Idan-du is found signifying 'near'; and we can see that this is connected with Ihan, 'together', seen in Ihan-skyes, 'born together' (as twins), Ihan-byed, 'auxiliary', Idan(s) owing its n to an s which originally followed. The word Ihan-byed, in the form Ihan-dpye, 'assistant', occurs in a Central-Asian document. A Nam equivalent, Idan-pyer, Ildan-hphyer (phyer), is to be seen in:

ldan-pyer-hgag-re-htsah-hyah-hdo ||, 65

'Those whose co-operation is refused become rivals (or adversaries)'

hldan-kran-hko-dze-stor-hldan-hphyar, 125-6

'when . . ., co-operation is lost'

hldan-phyer-hbrah[-]r[e], 254

'while co-operation is abundant'.

Of this compound, hldan-phyer, the second element, with e for a on the lines explained supra (p. 214), is equivalent to Tib. hphyar/phyar, 'lift up', 'hoist', (also 'blame', 'affront', 'disgrace', cf. Latin tollere). Outside the compound it occurs in Il. 341-2 in the three forms hphyar, pyar, hphyer, in Il. 254, 261 as phyer: in l. 239 it is contrasted (as in Il. 125-6, supra) with hstor, 'be lost'; and in l. 343 ldan likewise is contrasted with the stor of Il. 339, 340. It is evident that in the compound ldan means 'side', 'being at the side', and hphyar, 'support'.

Ldan singly, with the sense of 'at the side', 'auxiliary' is seen in:

ldan-rdze(rje)-hbro-re-hldan-the-rgyebs ||, 138-9

'when an allied chief flees, the allied lieges retreat'.

It is probable that in ll. 79, 143, the expression hldan-phyi (pyi)

¹ On -ar/-er see p. 353.

means 'outside support' (Tib. phyi). From the second of the two last-mentioned instances:

htor-se-stor-dze-hldan-pyi-ske ||, 143
'when the great roof is lost, the outside support is slight (Tib. rke, "lean", rked/sked, "waist")"

we can see that the idea of 'support', 'auxiliary', is derived from that of 'stick', 'pole', 'prop', which in Tib. sgo-ldan, 'door-side', i.e. 'door-post', is still apparent. The ldan may denote, in fact, the sticks or poles, over which, in the case of the Amdoan tent, the

roof-cords pass to the ground (supra, pp. 249-50).

We have not, however, reached the root of the matter, or the most common meaning of hldan in the Nam text, until we realize that hldan is another instance of object-denotation derived from quasi-abstract verbal notion. Like hbo, 'forest' or 'vegetation', properly 'swelling', 'growth', and hgren, 'man', properly the 'upright standing', hldan, 'stick', is a general notion of action, namely 'rising erect'. This is the signification of Tib. ldan/ldans, lan/lans, and correspondingly is the frequent signification of Nam hldan/ldan, as in:

htsog-hram-hdo-na-mor-hldan-re-hnah ||, 86-7 'where there is htsog-hram, there is no rising of evil' htsog-hldan-hstan, 94, 'htsog rises to the top' hmah-hldan-hyah-dze, 112, 'when low rises high' smyi-rmad-ldan, 80, 'an inferior man rises' stor-me-hkhyed-re-hldan-me-hkhyed ||, 123-4 'if a lost fire sufficed, a rising fire suffices' hsah-yer-hldan-dze-rne-hldan-ne, 141 'when land-watch rises, hostility rising is good'.

The use of this Verb with *rhe*, which properly means 'fiend', is frequent (ll. 119, 141, 144, 197), and it is the more apposite because in Tibetan, as already (p. 220) remarked, *ldan/lan* is used of the 'rising' of a fiend (from underground).

The same Verb forms part of an expression which in the text

has marked importance. One passage reads:

hldań-hkrań-hsad-na-hldań-hkrań-hśah hldań-krań-hwe-dze-hldań-slah-hkehe hldań-krań-hko-dze-stor-hldań-hphyar hldań-krań-spo-dze-stor-hgu-hbo || hldań-krań-hnam-dze-stor-dgu-hdor |||, 124–7

¹ Unless we prefer 'the support turns its neck away', with phyi-ske parallel to Tib. phyi-mig, 'backward look'.

Hldan-hkran is one of a few compound nouns which directly recall equivalents in Tibetan. The Tibetan phrase, in the form dranmkhran, is found, not indeed in the Dictionary, but two or three times in the contemporary manuscripts from north-eastern Tibet: it is composed of dran, 'straight', 'honest', and mkhran, hkhrans. 'hard', 'solid', and its meaning is 'honesty', 'uprightness'. Its non-occurrence in ordinary Tibetan combines with its provenance to suggest that it may be of Chinese origin, being one of a number of such phrases, concerning which see Franke, Geschichte des Chinesischen Reiches, ii, p. 5: and this may explain why the Nam expression, while similar to the Tibetan and rhyming therewith, corresponds to it linguistically only in part. The second member, bkran, is, no doubt, cognate to the Tibetan mkhran/bkhrans; but the first member, instead of meaning 'straight' (Tib. dran), means 'standing upright' = Tib. Idan, unless indeed it envisages the particular denotation 'stick', 'pole', and so contains the metaphor 'stiff standing pole'.

The passage applies to hldan-hkran, in successive clauses with corresponding apodoses, the five Predicates or Verbs hsad, hwe, hko, spo, hnam, which are therefore in a measure antithetic. Being already acquainted with a portion of the Predicates and other words, we may venture upon a rendering of the whole, as follows:

'Uprightness being slain (hsad), uprightness is cut up (hśah);
Uprightness being done (hwe), upright friends (Tib. zla) are won (hkehe);

Uprightness being by itself or enforced (? hko), assistance is lost;

Uprightness being changed (Tib. spo), all losses grow (hbo); Uprightness declining (Tib. ñams), all losses are thrown away (hdor).

Here hsad, 'slay', hwe, are words of frequent occurrence and quite certain etymology and meaning; hnam = Tib. ñams recurs in 1. 259 and is supported also by another hnam (1. 145) = Tib. ñams, 'thought', 'mind', 'spirit' (on ñ->n- see p. 360); spo, since Tib. spo, 'peak', is out of the question, can hardly help being = Tib. spo, hpho, 'change', 'be changed', 'pass away', cf. hŝi-hpo, p. 226; hko is a form of diverse meanings, discussed supra (pp. 260-4). As regards the apodoses, hŝah is applied in 11. 90, 99, as we shall see, to htsog-hram and hnah-htsog, and can well be = Tib. bŝah, used of the cutting up of a slain animal; hke, 'profit', 'gain', = Tib. khe (pp. 241-2), and hdor, 'throw away', = Tib. hdor, are

frequent in the text, while hbo, perhaps here doubtful, may be the hbo discussed supra (pp. 231-2); sla = Tib. zla, 'friend', calls for comment. The phrase stor-dgu is rendered 'all losses', literally 'nine losses', upon the supposition that this Tibetan idiom in the use of dgu, 'nine', found in our Tibetan manuscripts, was shared by the Nam; in the stor-hgu of the preceding verse there is no obvious alternative to the supposition of a writing of dgu as hgu, which may be defended on the two grounds, (a) that in 1. 113 hgu-htor-htsu: na must be = 1. 76 dgu-htor-tshun-re, and (b) that in the Hsi-fan and Tibeto-Burman dialects the Prefix-less form gu, 'nine', is far more common than those with Prefixes (d, r). On this matter see p. 233. Hsi-hsia has dgih/hgih, '9' (Nevsky, No. 109).

The expression hldan-hkran occurs also in Il. 91, 111-12 (with hnar, 'be strong', or 'be persistent', or 'attend to', see p. 361), 113 (with hrwehi, 'come to an end'?), 127, 157 (with hwe: hkran erroneously omitted), 268 (with hwad, 'be on the watch'). With

the same essential signification kran by itself is seen in:

hno-sta-glom-dze-kran-nur-nur, 85

'when friends are greedy, or conceited, the upright, or

uprightness, groans'.

It may be remarked that etymologically hkrań/krań = Tib. mkhrań/hkhrań, can well be connected with Tib. hgreń, 'stand', sgreń, 'lift or rise up' (sgreń-sgreń, 'firm and well-fixed'), whence the expression hgreń-myi, 'upright man', as opposed to prone (dud) beast.

28. rgyed-ma, rgyed; °hdre, °hyo, °hrah; hgye, rgye, rgyes; nag; gceg, hceg, gcheg; hldoho; htsog, htsag; hnah-, nah-, °htsog; ram, htsog-hram; hśah, hśas; phye; hnah; myag; hme; hpo; hreg; plim-plam; hso(so)-hnah (hna, na); hso-hldah; hdroho; myin; hñad, hñahd; hrgah, hrgan; hthan; tseg; rmo.

That rgyed-ma means 'division', 'disunion', has been argued above (pp. 139-40 sqq.): it is formed by aid of the Suffix ma, from a Verb hgye, 'be divided', 'be dispersed', hgyed, 'scatter', 'disperse', both being used also with reference to rays of light; and hgyed-ma in Tibetan is a goddess of dissension. Ultimately the Verb is an alternative form of a hbye,¹ 'be opened', 'be divided', hbyed, 'open', 'disunite', &c., whence dbye, 'distinction', 'species', 'extent', dbyen, 'dissension', dbyes, 'magnitude', 'dimensions' = Nam rgye, rgyes, 'extent'.

³ On the alternation b/g see pp. 33, n. 5, 243.

In the Nam text hgye is found (II. 12, 154) meaning 'light', in I. 209 (g-yehe, 'hi', 166, 271) 'is divided'. Rgye, 'extent', may be seen in hce-rgye (II. 57-60) = Tib. dbye-che, 'of great extent', and equivalent to hce-rgyan, II. 16, 50, 52, 55: in both the Nam phrases, however, hce may be the Noun, 'greatness', and rgye, rgyan, the Adjectives; as an Adjective, rgye is applied to 'stick' (hldan) and 'city' (can) in II. 209-10, and probably to hlo in I. 383; to 'man' (myi) in I. 153; to 'darkness' (hti) in I. 154; in I. 280 to 'house' (hkhab); in I. 54 it (rgyehe) is perhaps a Verb. In I. 326 it is probably a miswriting for rgyed (cf. I. 338). Once, viz. in hśan-nag-rgyes-hkom, I. 199, 'when enemy voice (Tib. nag), or black (Tib. nag) enemy, has attained extension', we find the form rgyes (= Tib. dbyes), which may be either Noun or Verb.

Rgyed = rgyed-ma is rather frequent, occurring in ll. 105, 106, 112 (rgyed-hldag-hnag, 'the disunion black-back'), 192 (rgyed-hran-sme-re, 'disunion being itself a fire'); and in compounds, rgyed-hdre (ll. 87, 94, 248), 'disunion-inducing', hrgyed-hyo (l. 338), 'disunion-working', rgyed-hrah (ll. 87, 216, 237, 243, 246, 248, 341, 342 (?), 392), 'place of disunion', the Suffix ma is absent, as

it would quite ordinarily be in Tibetan.

As antithetic to hldan-kran, 'uprightness', rgyed is seen in:

rgyed-hldag-hnag-ge-hldan-hkran-hrwehi ||, 112-13 'the disunion black-back put an end to uprightness'.

But more constant is the opposition to htsog-hram and allied

expressions, as in:

rgyed-ma-hldan-ge-htsog-hram-hśah ||, 90

'when disunion arises, htsog-hram is cut up'

rgyed-ma-glan-ge-hnah-htsog-hśah ||, 93

'when disunion gains (?), hnah-htsog is cut up'

rgyed-ma-hldan-ge-nah-htsog-hśas 101-2 (where na

rgyed-ma-hldan-ge-nah-htsog-hśas, 101–2 (where nah = hnah of 1. 93, and hśas is Aorist of hśah)

while in l. 94:

rgyed-htre (read °hdre-hte, as in Il. 87, 248) -ge-htsog-htan-ma || 'the disunion-inducers permit not htsog'

and also in the two following verses, htsog suffices.

Ḥtsog-ḥram, evidently one of the most important topics in the text, receives its most elaborate consideration in the passage:

htsog-hram-phye-dze-hśań-plim-plam htsog-hram-hnah-tse-htor-śi-rgo || htsog-hram-myag-dze-hrta-hwa-hldań htsog-hram-hme-dze-htor-htas-hproms htsog-hram-hpo-dze-hrta-rkwa-hdzam htsog-hram-hreg-dze-hldyań-hyu-hgań-dze-hśi-hwa-hko, 120-3.

Here the Predicates phye, 'divided', myag (Tib.) 'corrupted', hme, 'is not', hpo, 'changes' (Tib. hpho), which may be taken as known, inform us that the remaining two must also be of an ominous character in relation to htsog-hram. Of the previously ascertained meanings of hnah only one satisfies this condition; if we equate it to Tib. na, 'be sick', on which see p. 239, we see that it leads on to the &i, 'die', of the apodosis. Hreg = Tib. reg, 'reach', 'touch', is not promising; but regs, hbreg, bregs, 'lop off', 'amputate', would serve, and in regard to a lost (or perhaps later added) initial b we can think of Tib. ris, 'figure', 'design', which is in intimate relation to hbri, bris, 'draw' (ris-su-hbri-ba, 'draw an outline'), and ras-su-dros (dra-ba), 'cut up into strips': cf. bris/bris (p. 259). Thus we arrive at a rendering as follows:

'Htsog-hram being divided, hate is plim-plam (let loose ?);

,, sick, a great door (rgo) of death;

,, corrupted, horse's neck (a proverbial expression);

,, non-existent (everything is tangled (?): see p. 302);

,, changed, the horse's rule was mild;

,, ,, broken, in all the hldyan-hyu death's power prevails (?)'.

Despite the obscurities not yet resolved, it will be seen that the signification of htsog-hram must be something like 'friendship'. And how can this fail to be the fact, when, as we are already aware, the enemy of htsog-hram, and of other combinations with htsog, is

'disunion', rgyed-ma?

The constant, and therefore essential, factor in the expressions, namely htsog, is manifestly identical with Tib. 'assemblage', 'group', 'accumulation' (tshogs-kyi-gtso-bo or 'bdag = Sanskrit gana-pramukha, Ganeśa, &c.), being the Verb htshogs, 'assemble', 'unite', whence also bstsags, 'accumulated', tshags-byed, 'save', tshags-lhod-po, 'loose cohesion'. Nam htsag occurs in 1. 45, hyahtsag ||, 'sheep are collected', l. 117 hpho-hldir-htsag, 'males here collected', l. 173 hwi-hwehi-htsag, 'rats or mice gather', l. 234 htsag-hro, 'collected wolves', l. 257 hyah-rmah-htsag, 'high and low united', also l. 282. Hence hnah-htsog and hah-htsog, supra,

p. 291, denote respectively 'local unity' and 'home unity'. The element hram in htsog-hram evidently means 'agreeable' in l. 157:

skye-ta-ram, 'life is agreeable'

and the same is applicable to 'the moon' in Il. 73, 76, while in other cases (Il. 49, 184, 288, 368, 376) 'company' or 'in agreement' are more apposite. The word accords well with Tib. ram in rogs-ram, 'assist', from rogs = grogs, 'friend', 'companion', and perhaps in ra-mdah, i.e. ram-da, 'friend', 'helper', and ram-bu, 'a roundel song'. Thus the notion in htsog-hram is 'harmonious cooperation', a thing constantly threatened by rgyed-ma, 'disunion'.

It may be noted that in the Berlin fragment, l. 21, na-ram-reg is likely to be equivalent to the Nam htsog-hram (= nah-htsog)-hreg,

1, 122.

Antithetic likewise to rgyed-ma is hso-hnah, another main topic of the text, in:

rgyed-ma-hldan-ge-hso-hnah-hrgah, 107-8, 231

'disunion arising, hso-hnah grows old'

and this is also closely allied to htsog-hram:

htsog-hram-mye[-]r[e]-so-na-hśid ||, 365-6

'if htsog-hram is non-existent, so-na perishes'. In Tibetan so-nams (cf. so-tshis (tshigs), 'house-keeping') means 'husbandry' or other 'business', being obviously = gso/gson, 'live', 'nurture', 'cure', +snams, snom, bsnams, 'seize', 'gain'. This gso/so, the Nam text has in hso-hldah, l. 201, the 'living'; and hso-hnah = 'life-place', 'home'. But, like other words of local signification, the expression takes on a personal sense and means 'family', e.g. in:

rta-hso-hnah-yan-gñi-hrdzum-doho ||, 80

'for the horse's family also the day smiled' (p. 271)

(sc. when the horse fled, the family was relieved of a master).

rta-hgam-hpar-re-hso-hnah-hthan ||, 289-90

'the horse having gone to the hgam, his family was the authority'.

rta-hso-hnah-ge-na-rom-hton, 100

'the horse's family made room (for the visiting camel)'.

In fact, however, the relief of the family, which consisted of females (l. 108 mo-lan), was illusory, since there were 'males here collected' (l. 117), and:

hro-hbehi-hbah-ge-hso-hnah-geheg | 110-11,

'With wolves oppressing the sheep, the family suffered a check.'

In l. 234 it is 'collected wolves', 'wolf-pack' (htsag-hro), and the family was practically in the grave (rman-dze, l. 235). Thus the 'rise of disunion' (ll. 107-8, 231), the flight (ll. 110, 114-15) and disrepute (ll. 231-2; rme, p. 284 supra) of the horse were ruinous to the family, and:

so-hnah-hstor-dze-hno-stor-hprom ||, 127-8 'family being lost, loss of friends results'.

Of the words closely attached to rayed only rmag (rayed-rmag, 1.149) remains for consideration (infra, pp. 300-1). With htsog-hram and htsog we have had the expressions hrta-hwa-hldan, htor-htashproms, hrta-rkwa-hdzam, hśah, hśas, phye, hnah, myag, hme, hpo. hreg, mye, hldan, of which the first three may be postponed, while the rest have been discussed. To be added are hdroho l. 37 (= Tib. hdro, hdron, 'travel', 'depart', a Verb occurring elsewhere also in the text), haad, l. 90, myin, l. 97 (if a correct reading, equivalent, no doubt, to Tib. min, 'a [mere] name'): hnad, which, as hnahd, is predicated in l. 116 of 'fear', may have appositely the meaning 'evaporate' and be akin to Tib. had, 'vapour', 'odour'. With hso-hnah have been found, ll. 108, 131, hrgah, 'grow old', = Tib. rga/rgan (used respectively of 'speech', hrgah, l. 169,1 and 'corn', hrgan, l. 160); l. 356 hsid, 'perish'; l. 290, hthan, 'be authority'; II. 111, 234 gcheg/gceg, 'suffer a check'; II. 111, 270 hyah, 'be in the ascendant'; l. 232, stor, 'be lost'. In l. 103 we find ma-ran, 'be not pleased' = Tib. ran, rans; in l. 110 hldoho, which is ambiguousconceivably it is related to Tib. bdo, 'increase'. Gcheg/gceg, here antithetic to hldoho, is = Tib. hcheg, hchags, bśags, bśag, śag, 'split', 'confess', 'be afraid', gcog, bcag, chogs, 'split', 'break', cag/chag, 'broken', &c.; the form with ts which furnishes tshegs, 'trouble', 'toil', 'difficulty', may occur in l. 93, swa-tseg-tseg, where, however, a different explanation is possible. In the Central-Asian documents we find the forms tseg (ii, p. 412: 117) and tshegs (ii, p. 236: 87, a 'check' in the military sense). The Nam text has hceg in:

hbron-re-ge-rmo-hkum-heeg, 250
'all the yaks were, in fulfilment of the vow or prayer (? Tib. smon?), "checked".'

 hkhor, hkor; hyog, g-yog, hyogs; hkru, hkruhu, hkhru, hkhruhu; hkru-yog, °hbro, °hpro; hkhru-rgyañ; hkyañ; °rgyañ, °hldoñ; khri; hŝi-hkri (hgri); hnah(na)-°hpoñ, °hldom; hgor; kla;

But here probably rather = Tib. dgah, 'joy', 'rejoice'.

klag; gśim; hprah; hrgom; hrkah; hrdoho; hrnab; hkyi;

g-rah.

Tibetan hkhor, of which the central signification is that of 'circle', 'circling', whence also 'coming round', 'returning', has also very commonly the meaning 'entourage', 'courtiers', 'attendants', e.g. in hkhor-g-yog, 'attendants and servants', nahhkhor, 'domestics'. The first of these meanings has been accepted (p. 272) in regard to hkor as applied in 1. 53 to the rgya-hñi-ke, 'sun and moon'. In 1l. 293, 294, 296 it is not clear whether the hyahhkah-rdza and hkyah-hldon 'form a circle' or 'turn back' (hkhor [-re]); and in 1. 277 it is likewise uncertain whether the braves (hpah) 'return' or 'form groups or retinues' (hkor-re). But in 1. 18, hdzah-hkhor-hkrug, 'the retinue of wise persons was at strife', and in 1. 98 the word hkhor clearly denotes a group of subordinates forming a retinue; and in:

hkor-htah-hkhen-yan-sñan-gyan-gyan, 92 'though recognizing one of one's own people, the heart dallies, dallies'

the sense is approximately, or exactly, the same.

With hkhor, as in the above-cited Tibetan hkhor-g-yog, the Nam text associates hyogs in its:

hdzań-hkhor-hkrug-hkyań-hyogs-hldog, 18

where the hyogs or hkyan-hyogs are hldog. In the sense of 'below', associated with rgyah-gñi-ke and with 'castle' (ll. 200, 299, 320), g-yog has already been cited (pp. 267, 279); also in the thence derived sense of 'valley' (ll. 15, 51). In hkhwi-tsa-hyog-hdag, l. 259, 'old men with staves or poles', an entirely different word, = Tib. yog-po, yog-ŝiĥ, may be seen. The notion of 'servant' (Tib. g-yog) is to be recognized in rma-g-yog-rho, l. 156, 'capable of rendering service to the wounded' (cf. Tib. nad-g-yog, 'service at sick-bed'). The hyogs or hkyaĥ-hyogs who in l. 18 are hldog, 'recalcitrant' (Tib. ldog, log), are accordingly 'servitors'.

The recurrent expression hkru-yog, Il. 289, 321 (khru^o), 322-3 (hkhruhu^o), 324, contains a word which by reason of relative constancy of writing must be kept entirely apart from any gru or hgru. Even in Il. 187, 388, the rendering 'when the great hkhru became expanded' is to be preferred. The hkru-hyog-rho, l. 289 = khru-hyog-rho, l. 321 = hkru-hyog, l. 324, 'the hkru capable of service', must be the kruhu-hthe-hprah, 'humble (Tib. phra) kruhu lieges', of Il. 334-5, the hkhruhu-hyog-hsud, 'dispersed (? Tib.

gsud), hkruhu servitors', of ll. 322-3, and the rkom-hkru-hsud, 'slain hkru dispersed', of l. 313. They must therefore be equivalent to the kru-ra, = dmans-rigs, of the Tibetans, 'the vulgar, or the lowest class of people in the mystical [sc. yoga] language'. We cannot but surmise that they are properly 'the offscourings' (Tib. hkhru, khrud, 'wash', 'cleanse'). Accordingly we can understand:

hyah-htan-rma[-]r[e]-hyah-hkruhu-hbro-re-hrgyeb-hkruho||, 315-16

'when the higher authority becomes low, while the front hkruhu-hbro, the rear is hkru (filth)'.

As a Predicate in the last usage, hkru, hkhru, has several recurrences:

hrkom-hbron-hkru[-]r[e], 285, 'the slain yak being filth', hkhru-re-hkyan, 320, 'the hkyan being filth'

hgu-mor-hkru[-]r[e], 331, 'the wicked thieves2 (?) being filth' while in:

hrgom-hkhru[-]r[e]-hto-na, 169, 'the canaille being passed over (hrgom, pp. 245, 323)'

khru-hrkah-myi-hrdoho-hrnab-ma-hldah, 165

'the canaille who do not submit to hardships (Tib. dkah-ba-dan-sdo) were not entitled to eat (Tib. mnab)'

the word is a Substantive.

These facts prohibit us from anywhere yielding to the temptation to render the frequent expression $hkru(hkruhu, kru) \cdot hbro$ (once "hpro, I. 321) by 'flies into a corner (gru)', although hbro (bro), = Tib. hbros/bros, 'flee', has a number of occurrences (Il. 36, 138, 139, 241). Hyah-hkruhu-hbro (Il. 315-16, 318, 325) means 'the front (sc. the superior) tastes as filth' (Anglicè 'is in bad odour'), hrgyeb-hkru-hbro (Il. 297, 323) 'the rear (sc. inferior) tastes as filth', and hri(g-ri)-hkruhu-hbroho(hbro) (Il. 294, 313), 'the mountain tastes as filth', sc. when infested by savage animals. The verse:

hyah-hklu(hkru)-hbro-re-hgyeb4-hkru-hbro-re-hyah-htahhthanna | : |, 221-2

'The front tasting as filth, the rear tasting as filth, both are on a par'

² Cf. Tib. skyug-bro, 'nausea', 'disgust', 'shameful', 'impure', from skyug, 'vomit'.

Sic.

Hsud occurs only in the two passages. Tib. sud = 'cough', 'choke', and gsud, bsud, 'dyspepsia', 'be lost', 'dispersed', 'be crammed with food'. Perhaps śud, bśud, 'scratch', 'excoriate', also 'steal silently away', is intended: or cf. bsun (√sun), 'dissolute'?
See p. 233.

follows the statement hbron-hkru-hbro-na ||, l. 221, in regard to which the temptation is at first, by reason of the context, strong; and the Tibetan Dictionary of S. C. Das quotes from the Buddhist Bstan-hgyur a short sentence containing both hbros from bro, 'taste', and bros from hbros, 'flee'. The same is possible in Nam; but hkru-hbro is confined, in fact, to the single meaning.

Hkyan, mentioned above as possibly contained in the phrase hkyan-hyogs, where, however, it might be = Tib. kyan, 'even', 'also', and again in the statement 'the hkyan being filth', appears

in antithesis to hbos, 'big man', 'master', in:

hpu-hpos-stor-dze-hkyań-stor-rho ||, 141 'when the master man flees, the hkyań can flee'.

In Il. 273-4:

hwi-hwa-se-kyah-hkyan-hdzam-re-hldan ||
'to the crops mice-injured (se) the hkyan all tame returned'

the hkyan are alined with the hnoho-hjam-re, 'friends all tame', of the previous verse, who returned to their enemy-abandoned (gśan-hrah-hton) crops, and with the 'enemies' (rhe), twan (?), 'dogs' (hkyi) and 'goats' (g-rah) 'all tame' or 'tamed', of the following verses. They are therefore not 'friends' or 'enemies' or 'animals'; and, being contrasted with masters, they must be some class of clients, while, being agricultural, they must be some sort of tenants: they are therefore agricultural serfs. This accounts for the antithesis to na-hldom in:

na-hldom-hgor-kla-hkyan-gstor[-hdor], 143

'if the na-hldom are very idle (Tib. hgor, 'loiter',+kla, 'unlimited', as in ll. 205-6), the hkyan are allowed to be lost'.

For the na-hldom, who in II. 41–2, 350, are again mentioned as 'idle' (hgor), must be domestic servants or slaves, just as the 'idle' (hgor) hnah-hpon of 1. 113 must be the na-bon, 'house or place poor (hphons, phons)', of one of the Tibetan manuscripts (see p. 238): on hldom, 'bound', see infra, pp. 318–9 sqq.

The hkyan are again, as hkyan-hldon, contrasted with the hbos in:

mor-hkyan-hldon-re-hbos-g-yah-hthan ||, 286-7
'the bad hkyan being hldon (or the hkyan-hldon being vile),
the master is in the ascendant'

hkyań-hldoń-hkhor-[re-]hbos-hrihi-hruhu ||, 293

'the hkyan-hldon returning (or in attendance), [to] the master (or master's) mountain peak'

hbos-g-ri-hpan-dze-hkyan-hldon-re-hnah ||, 290-1

'On the master's mountain-flank are no hkyan-hldon'

hkyan-hldon-hkhor-[re-]hbos-hyah-htona, 293-4

'the hkyan-hldon returning (or in attendance), the master is in the ascendant'.

Here hldon cannot mean 'face' ('hkyan-faced'), Tib. gdon/mdons, or 'blind', ldon/lon, or 'accompanying' = Tib. sdon: it must be 'runaway', = Tib. hdon, 'depart' (in Imperative, 'Begone'), as elsewhere; and the situation, as well as the meaning of hkhor, is determined by:

rńe-htab-hkohu-hkhohu-ge-hkyań-hldoń-hgyań-sto hkyań-hldoń-hkhor-[re-]hbos-hrihi-hruhu || htor-hpuhu-hbos-dze-hrim-ge-hgrus, 292-3

'while the fiends were answering back (p. 264), the runaway hkyan stopped:

the runaway hkyan turning back to the master's mountain peak.

under the great master did service all around'.

In II. 308-11 there is a rather similar passage concerning certain hash-hldon.

Reference to hkyan, 'serfs', must be seen also in Il. 48-9, where a fight of twan is contrasted with a fight of hkyan. But in I. 372, hkrug-kyan-hldom-re, 'strife also being subdued', and consequently in the above-cited hkrug-hkyan-hyogs-hldog, I. 18; further in hkhor-kyan-rwehi, I. 98, 'the retinue also is ruined', and in hlah-hkyan-hras-re, I. 344, 'the passes also being alined', it seems probable that kyan, hkyan = Tib. kyan, 'even', 'also'.

A quite different hkyan must be seen in:

hkyań-rgyań-hśig-dze-hśi-hkri-htshim, 81

'when the hkyan-rgyan is destroyed, the high or death (hśi) couch (Tib. khri, 'chair', 'couch', 'bed') is a satisfaction' hkyan-hrgyan-hyah-ge-hmu-klag-gśim ||, 268

'with the hkyan-hrgyan in front, a cold season (Tib. glags, 'occasion') is agreeable (Tib. sim, tshim, or gsin?)'.

Here the 'long or large (rgyan) hkyan' would be quite intelligible,

¹ In this and the following passages hbos-hrihi(g-ri) perhaps means 'big mountain', as suggested supra, p. 231. In that case the hpu-hbos and hbos, 'big man', in the immediate context and in Il. 294, 298, is verbally associated with the 'big mountain'.

if it were the k'ang of the Tibeto-Chinese border and of north China, a sort of dais, about 2 feet high, floored with tiles or mud and heated by a flue underneath: on this the people sit and sleep (Hue and Gabet, i, p. 287; Rockhill, The Land of the Lamas, pp. 6-7, Diary, p. 35). It seems possible that the word hkyan actually represents the Chinese term ts'uan, 'stove', since in the Tibetan manuscripts we find khyod written for tshod¹ in dguntshod, 'winter-season' (cf. nin-tshod, mtshan-tshod, Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 201). The same expression recurs in:

na-hldom-hgor-[re-]hkyan-hrgyan-hdzud ||, 41–2 'if the house-servants are idle, the hkyan-hrgyan is wasted or unsuccessful' (?)

but, though Tib. hdzud, zud, tshud, 'enter', 'put in', is identical with chud, which has these senses and also the meaning suggested (chud-gzon, 'zod, 'be wasted', 'consumed'), the rendering must be considered conjectural. The phrase hśi-hkri-hchim (sic), 'high or death chair or bed', recurs in 1.38 (hgri); but Tib. hchim means 'be, or get, full', and the remainder of the verse is not clear. Khri = 'support', a meaning found also in Tibetan, is seen in 1.52 (p. 317). In 1.114 (hrah-rtah-)hkyan is an error for the hgyan of 1.77.

30. rmag; mag-hno; hthun; htar; hman-byi; hdrag; hśod; "tsa; pun; gsar; nar; hpah; hci, hcihi, gcihi, chi, hchi; hdah; hsams; hpom, hphom; hdran; htog, hthog; hśi-kyeg; hyu-sad; hro-ta; tor, thor, hthor; tor-htas-proms; hldas; hso-bos; hrñi; mo; myag; hdwa; lad, hlad.

The passage:

. . . mag-hnor-su-ge-stor-ta-hthogs ||
phye-hgo-hthuñ-re-hnam-hdzam-htar
hrah-htoñ-rmag-dze-hdrag-htrog-htsa ||
rñe-hne-hrmag-dze-hmañ-byi-hldoñ
[hldoň]-hyu-sad-ge-hphom-te-hdrañ
[hdrañ]-ge-hsad-na-hrañ-rgyañ-hśod
[hśod]-te-rmag-dze-rmañ-ra-gyim
spye-htor-hdwa-dze-myag-myi-tor
[tor]-htas-prom-dze-myage-me-htañ
rgyed-rmag-rñe-ge-stor-ta-hthog-ni, 145-9

has suffered, as will be seen, from losses of repeated words, to the

On khy- and tsh- see p. 269.

detriment of the metre. The following discussion, however, does not greatly depend upon recognition of that circumstance. We may venture upon a rendering as follows:

'in . . . battle who stay flight?

If there is a little (hthun) open space, the tame-hearted make off (htar):

Against a post-relinquishing army the enemy are bold (Tib. hdrag).

In an army of bad or good many weak ones (or big and little,

hman-byi) flee;

Fleeing, with their country lost, they are dragged defeated; Those dragged being annihilated, those of great self (hran-rgyan) are laid low (hśod);

For an army laid low the tomb enclosure is home.

As to (ni) the evil army of disunion staying flight:

As to (ni) the evil-hearted enemy (hrah) staying flight:

The equation of rmag to Tib. dmag, 'army', is not open to objection; and the same is appropriate in regard to the only other instance of rmag:

pun-te-gsar-nar-hpah-rmag-hcihi ||, 204-5 'in mass with new strength a hero army goes'

where pun = Tib. phun, 'heap', 'bundle', hphuns, 'concourse', dpun, 'host', 'army'; gsar = Tib. gsar, 'new'; nar = Tib. nar, 'strength', 'vigour' (infra, p. 361); hpah = Tib. dpah, 'hero'; heihi (cf. l. 350, gcihi, l. 346; hei, ll. 300, 345; chi/hehi, ll. 168, 183, 345, 353, 385) = Tib. mehi, 'go', 'come': most of which words occur elsewhere also in the Nam text.

A practical equivalence of rmag to mag(-hnor) no longer calls for defence: the d/r in dmag/rmag is a Prefix, and we have suggested that strictly it implies an intervening verbal idea, so that, if mag originally meant 'array', dmag/rmag may have meant 'arrayed'. That mag-hno(r) means 'battle' is suggested by Tib. g-yul-ho, 'battle' (g-yul, 'fight', +hos, 'side', or ho, 'face'): as a fact, the equivalence, and at the same time the r-Locative in -hnor = -hnodze, is established by:

sku-mag-hno-dze-me-na-hldis hdah-mag-hno-dze-me-na-hsams, 58

¹ Cf. the cases of repeated words supplied underline, as noted supra, pp. 117, 229.

'the body in battle leaps in fire;

'the arrow (Tib. mdah, ef. p. 343: on hldah see p. 317) in battle[-time] is made ready (hsams) in fire'

twań-mag-hno[-]r[e] . . . hkyań-mag-hno[-]r[e], 48-9

'in a battle of twan . . . in a battle of hkyan'

hdihi-mag-hno[-]r[e]-ma-hpu-mu-re, 184

'in this battle mother and children being cold (afraid?)'

Even outside the compound mag-hno the form mag is seen in:

hsad-mag-hdehi-dze-hśi-kyeg-mye, 102

'in those whose army' is defeated the fire (courage) is winterclogged (h\$i-kyeg, p. 226)'

where the hsad, sad, of the passage ll. 145-9 recurs.

Of the other expressions in the passage many (phye, hgo, hnam = Tib. ñams, 'mind', &c., hrah-hton, htrog, rñe, hne, hman, byi, hldon, hsad, rgyan, rman, gyim, myag, stor, hrah (= Tib. dgra), sñin, have already been discussed: others, hthun = Tib. thun, 'small'; hdrag = Tib. drag, 'fierce', 'confident', &c.; hphom (l. 347 hpom) = Tib. hpham/pham, 'be defeated'; hdran (ll. 254-5 hdran-re, 'at every pull') = Tib. hdren, drans, dran, tran, drons, dron (dran-dgu, 'every pull', in one of the Tibetan manuscripts), 'pull', 'drag', 'draw', 'lead', &c., may here be lightly passed over. The phrase stor-ta-hthog(s), Il. 145, 149, contains a form hthog (l. 235 htog) = Tib. thogs, 'hold up', 'obstruct', connected, no doubt, with hdogs, blags, gdags, thogs, 'bind', 'attach'; cf. p. 156. Hyu-sad has been understood as = Tib. yul-brlag, 'country ruined', of an old text: on hyu = yul see p. 333. Hsod, which cannot be connected with Tib. sad/gsad/gsod, 'comb' (a horse), 'brush', 'stroke', or with bsad/sod/bsod, 'expound', 'state', may be = sod, 'low', 'bottom', concerning which see p. 6: in l. 198 śodtsa is used of 'corpses' (hro-ta), in l. 281 (p. 231) of 'forests' (hbo-hram). The form śodtsa, hśodtsa, is peculiar both in itself and by reason of the fact that in both passages it functions as a monosyllable. Possibly it was intended as equivalent to héods, an s-Preterite of héod, which, however, would be hard to parallel, there being no other recognized s-Preterites from Verbs with final d.2 Myage(= myag-ge)-me-htan can mean, here and in l. 39,

¹ Or 'army fortune (hde)' or 'army heat (lde)', with a paronomasia.

² Such Preterites in -ds were, however, posited by the late Dr. Wolfenden (Outlines of Tibeto-Burman Linguistic Morphology. p. 58(1), and JRAS. 1937, p. 648) as the source of the -s in d-verbs; and an actual instance may be seen in the word skyeds, 'interest' (!), occurring in a document (Tib. Literary Texts, &c., ii, p. 190): cf. hbrad-sta, p. 359.

'the power (htan = Tib. than, as elsewhere) of fire (perhaps here

implying 'courage') is spoiled (Tib. myag)'.

In tor-htas-prom (l. 148) htas cannot well be = Tib. hdas, 'passed', which in l. 85 is hldas: also tor cannot here be the frequent tor/htor, 'great'. The phrase must be the same as in ll. 121-2, where we are told that 'if friendship is not, htor-htas-hproms': there, if we translate 'the tuft (Tib. thor, e.g. of hair) has become tangled', understanding htas as = Tib. hthas, 'not straightforward', 'hard', 'solid', s (originally Aoristic) form of tha, 'hard', 'compact', 'bad', we obtain a satisfactory sense and at the same time a relation to the proverb sdud-ka-ni-bal-nas-bchad (also glad-kyi-phud-ñams), 'the tie from the hair was burst', of one of the Tibetan manuscripts (cf. thor-te, 'the top point of the hair', &c., gtsug-thor, 'tor, thor-gtsug, 'turban', 'head-tuft', 'top-knot').2 Then in the preceding verse we shall have:

spye-htor-hdwa-dze-myag-myi-tor

'when the summer (spye, as in Il. 159, 190) -sheaf goes wrong (hdwa), the man-sheaf (coherence of the troops) gives way (myag, 'corrupts').

The word hdwa, known to the Tibetan dictionaries only in dwa-ba, name of 'a plant yielding an acrid drug', occurs in the Tibetan manuscript in the phrase dwa-bses-myed, 'a poor wretch (?) without friends' (cf. Chinese to < d'ua, 'ruin', Karlgren, nos. 1008-9), which may indicate the general sense in the Nam passage.

In:

htor-htas-prom-hrom-nehu-hso-bos, 257

'in the vacancy (hrom = Tib. rum) of the tuft which has become tangled a new hso-bos'

we have evidently in hso-bos a synonym for thor; the expression will mean 'top (hso = Tib. gtso, cf. hse = gtse)-swell' (hbo, hbos, bos, see p. 231). Tibetan gtso has also the anticipated forms gco/co (Nam hco, l. 55); and this appears in co-to, 'a tuft of hair on the head'.

It is unfortunate that in Tib. thor, 'anything gathered into a point', of which, as we see, the predominant sense is 'top-knot',

¹ In the Tibetan manuscripts we find zin-ta(= tha)-bahi-rna (for rha), 'fields with thick mowing'.

² Possibly the Nam people were an elaborate top-knot, like the 'horn' of the modern Black (sc. Independent) Lo-los, who so much resemble them (figured in Fergusson, op. cit., p. 301, and D'Ollone, In Forbidden China, p. 90). See next page. 'tuft', exists side by side with a hthor, 'scatter', 'sprinkle', 'disperse', belonging, no doubt, to the group stor, gtor, hdor, and perhaps the basis of thor-bu, 'single', 'separate', thor-bu and 'pa, 'pimples', &c. Nevertheless the first thor must be recognized in Tib. hthor-mtho, 'lofty peak', and consequently in the Nam:

śid-g-ri-htor-dze, 34 hśid-hrihi-hthor-dze, 62 on the summit of a high mountain'.

But what is the signification of the quasi-proverbial phrase mo-mathor(hthor), ll. 63, 71, 144, always corresponding to a hldi-mahrtah(rtah), 'the horse does not leap (gallop)', in the following verse? The expression, which is linked by the word thor to the above tor/htor-htas-prom/hproms, is further associated therewith by the application to friendship in:

hno-stor-hsans-dze-mo-ma-hthor, 143-4

'when friends are gone (Tib. son, 'go') lost, the mo does or do not bunch'.

If the two phrases are equivalent, mo should mean 'hair': and this is in itself likely, because Hsi-hsia has ma (= Chinese mau, mao, Laufer, 92; Karlgren, 602), which exists not only in the Nepal dialects cited by Laufer, and apparently elsewhere also in Tibeto-Burman, but actually in Hsi-fan, Mānyak $m\tilde{u}\tilde{\iota}$. This also accords with:

hyań-hso-hrñi-dze-mo-ma-hthor, 63

'if the net or noose (Tib. rñi/sñi) is too large (Tib. yans?), the hair does not bunch';

for the $r\tilde{n}i$, well-known in the sense of a trapper's net, will be the sdud-ka, 'tie', of the above Tibetan sentence, and the dar-sna and 'sni, 'silk tie' of Tibetan Literary Texts, &c., ii, pp. 398, 440–1, and of thor-cog-dar-sna, 'silk string of the spiral hair-plait' (thor-cog and 'tshugs, Ś. C. Das's Dictionary). But in l. 71 (p. 304) the meaning 'sheep' ('ewe'?) or 'goat', attested in Hsi-hsia (Laufer, no. 173) is clearly more apposite, especially in view of the expression $h\tilde{n}a\tilde{n}$ -hya-htsag, ll. 44–5 (see p. 343).

It seems probable that one same Predicate thor should be recognized in:

rñe-lad-thor-dze-ca-yan-htor, 235-6 gse-hlad-htor-dze-hcah-hyan-hbro-na ||, 240.

gse-hlad-thor-dze-hchah-yan-thor, 242.

In spite of the word hbro, 'flee', apparently alternative in L 240 to

htor/thor, and the possibility of applying the idea of 'scattering' to $r\tilde{n}e(gse)$ -lad, 'requital of wrong (harm)', it does not seem reasonable to attribute to the Verb a meaning so opposed to the preceding, however justified in Tibetan. The meaning may be that the 'requital of evil $(r\tilde{n}e/gse\text{-lad})$ ' is exacted 'in a lump' and that the ca/hcah/hchah are taken in along with the other offenders.

The word lad/hlad, will be a d-form corresponding to Tib. lan, 'turn', 'return', 'requital', lad-mo, 'imitation', 'mimic', slad

(slan), 'after', 'back', slar, 'back'.

khrom, hkrom, hkhram, hgrom, hgroms; hcer; hpyi; hprah; cig-dze; hldam.

Khrom is antithetic to heer in:

mor-tsah-khrom-re || hyan-tsa-heer ||, 388 'when the evil khrom, the good heer'

and the same antithesis takes the form of parallel in:

ru-ge-ḥkrom-dze-mo-ma-thor ḥcha-ge-ḥcer-dze-ḥldi-ma-rtaḥ ||, 70-1.

In Tibetan the Verb bcer/gcer, denotes a fixed stare or glare, and the Adverb cer-re/ce-re means 'with fixed stare'. In one of the Tibetan manuscripts it has been found applied to the stare of affright; but it might equally be used of a terrifying glare. In 1. 202 of the Nam text phyi-rjes-ne-hcer seems to mean 'the good man is (in certain circumstances) afraid of a memorial'.

In the first passage quoted the good evidently stare with alarm at the evil, who khrom: in the second the horse refuses to leap at a

ravenous animal (hcha) which glares.

The word khrom in the first passage must signify some kind of success; and, if we understand a 'spreading', the ru-ge-hkrom of the second passage can be adjusted as meaning 'with widespread horns (sheep do not flock together?)'. But a somewhat different notion is suggested by the phrase hgye-hkrom-hkrom, 'light flickers', discussed supra, p. 235–6, and there connected with the Tibetan hgrem, &c., 'spread', 'sprinkle', 'display', 'scatter'.

In view of certain traces of word-play in the Nam text it is not

at all unlikely that in the verse:

'when the evil khrom ('spread' or 'glitter'), the good stare in fright'

both senses were envisaged.

The notion of 'prospering', 'flourishing', 'shining', can be seen also in:

hkhram¹-re-hrdan-yan-hrkom-hpyi-hprah ||, 332-3

'though when prosperous (active, shining) wrathful (Tib. sdan), when slain the hpyi² (or "(creatures) after death") are of no account (hprah, as elsewhere = Tib. phra, "small", or possibly Tib. hphra, "kick", "be kicked").'

hkhar-rpag-g-yar-re-hldag-[nag-]hgrom, 135-6

'When Low-town became high, the black-back flourished' hrta-swa-gkom-re-htor-bbron-bgrom, 222-3

'while the horse was occupied with watching, the great yak flourished'

the last passage being followed by:

htor-hbron-hgrom-re . . . } 222-3

where there is an explicit antithesis of hgrom, 'flourished', to hrpag, 'brought low'.

The same meaning must be recognized in:

hvan-tsa-hjo-dze-hyan-ge-hgroms

tor-pu-hgru-ge-hstor-mon-hdzon-re-htsa-hdzo-hkrom, 63-4 'when the good are chiefs, the good flourish:

'... the Mon-castle being lost, the men were scattered'

(the events indicated by the expressions 'the horse occupied in watching', 'Low-town become high', and 'Mon-castle lost', being all one occurrence).

In:

hldyan-hyu-hjo-cig-dze-htor-ge-hkroms, 387 hldyan-hjo-hkrom-ni, 390

the sense of hkroms/hkrom is not clear.

The expression *cig-dze*, interpreted (p. 234) as *cig*, 'ruined' (= Tib. *hjig/bžig/śig*) and recurring as *cig/gcig* in ll. 194, 208, 356, 377)+*dze*, may in l. 387 be the unanalysable term repeated in:

cig-dze-htor[-re]-hldam-re-hldan, 186-9, 192,

where some official title or designation might be apposite. If the case were so, we could think only of Turki cigši, 'prefect', which appears in Chinese as ts'e-che (= śe), in Central-Asian Tibetan Documents (ii, p. 49) as tshi-śi, and, probably, in one of 'the

¹ Tib. khram is 'cunning', 'artful', 'lively', 'brisk', 'quick', as boys, kids, &c.

² Perhaps Tib. dbyi, g-yi, 'lynx'.

Tibetan manuscripts' as si-si-drun-po, 'si-si official'. Possibly the line refers, as would be apposite in the context, to reports, &c., of such officials; but the phrase hldam (cf. Tib. ldam-ldem, 'dubious', &c.?)-re-hldan is obscure.

In II. 150, hkyer-re-cig-dze, 376, rab-hgo-cig-dze, the meaning 'ruined', 'overthrown', is clear.

 hgru, hgru-hldan-hmah/ma; hgru-ma; htor(tor)-hpu (hpuhu, hphu, hbu)-hgru.

Some of the most puzzling expressions in the text occur together in the lines:

hśid-hrihi-hthor-dze-hgru-hldań-hmah htor-hphu-hgru-dze-gla-htso-htsah, 62

of which the first recurs (\$\delta id-g-ri-\hter-dze \cdots \cdots) in Il. 34-5, and the second in Il. 29-30 (\$\hbeta pu \, \hterap dzo \cdots). Having acquiesced (p. 303) in the rendering of \$\hat{h} \delta id-\hrightin-\hterap hthor-dze by 'on the top of a high hill', we come next to \$\hat{h} gru-\hlda id-\hmah (ma)\$. This expression, repeated in:

hgru-hldan-hmah-dze-htsa-gsom-hkhog, 21 hgru-hldan-hmah-ge-hses-hbeg-hrah ||, 22-3 hgru-hldan-ma-dze-hrgu-hto-hrun ||, 30

seems to denote some more than casual object. The element hgru, which, if = Tib. gru, should mean either (a) 'boat' or (b) 'angle', 'corner', 'edge' (gru-bži, 'square', gru-mo, 'elbow', gru-ma, 'angle', 'corner', 'edge', yul-gru, 'locality' (country-corner)), may have the meaning (b) in:

hldu-hro-hgru ||, 19, 'the assembly-place (after the overthrow of the bzer, which was a building) a corner'

hri-hgru-gras-re, 300, 'the mountain corners (recesses?) being alined'.

But a different sense is apparent in:

hgru-hsram-htam-ge-hses-beg-hstah ||, 24

'the hgru firmly (hsram) knit together are (were) Hses-beg's station'

which, however, is closely connected with hgru-hldan-hmah by the statement (Il. 22–3):

hgru-hldan-hmah-ge-hses-hbeg-hrah ||

'Hgru-hldan-hmah was (were) Ḥśes-hbeg's place'.

Here we might understand *hgru*, 'corner', in the sense of 'corner (sc. projecting *or* recess in) rocks'; and we have already (p. 223) seen that Hses-hbeg was 'eye' and 'path' to the 'blind rocks'

(klu-rto). Inasmuch as hldan is known as (a) 'stick', (b) 'rise', (c) 'side', and hmah should be either (a) 'low' or (b) 'not' or (c) a Suffix, the expression hgru-hldan-hmah might mean (a) 'promontories rise (rising) low', (b) 'side promontories', (c) 'promontories without trees', (d) 'promontories with low trees', (e) 'promontory risings'. None of these, however, seems to furnish a suitable abode for Hses-hbeg; and, moreover, the statement in 1. 21 that in hgru-hldan-hmah the three grasses were spoiled (rtsa-gsom-hkhog) seems to point to a country rather than to such features. If we understand hgru-hldan-hmah as a proper name, we not only account for its recurrence, but recognize in its second syllable a characteristic of the names of places, imaginary or real, mentioned in the kindred literature. The Tibetan manuscripts mention:

Rtsi-dan, one of the 13 (mythological) countries, Hbum-dan, one of the 13 (mythological) towns, Gun-dan, the (mythological) country of Gun-tshun, Rji-lun-dan-ba, the (mythological) country of the Rji (= rdzi, 'storm-wind'?) Phyar-phyur,

Pyi-gtan-sum, a Hbrog country, Pyi-ldan, a certain locality,

Dbye (Bye)-ldan-sum, a Hbrog country = Dbye-mo.

It seems likely that in all these names we have one and the same syllable $da\hat{n}$, $lda\hat{n}$, conventionally employed in the naming of imaginary places and preceded by a syllable which in some cases $(Gu\hat{n}$ and Rji) was used as name of the inhabitants, but in other cases (Rlsi, 'sap'?, Pyi, 'outer', Dbye, 'extent'?) denoted something else. Accordingly Hgru-hldan-hmah might be 'country of rocks or rock-recesses', if it should not rather be 'country of the

Hgru'.

The last-mentioned possibility, which might involve the supposition that the text regards the Hgru people as the people of the hgru, 'rocks' or 'mountain recesses', would not be foreign to the manner of this literature and would be in harmony with the bulk of the old Tibetan personal nomenclature, which prefixes names of countries, places, tribes, &c., as surnames to the individual designations of persons. We should, however, be inclined to pass it over, as an unnecessary complication, but for two circumstances. The first of the two is the fact that a Hgru people is mentioned, along with the Dbra, Ldon, and Lga, as one of 'four tribes' (S. C. Das's Dictionary). We may suspect that they figure in early Bon-po literature. Of the four the least legendary are the

Ldon, of whom some mention reaches historical times; the Lga attain a certain approximation to reality from the mention of a 'Lgar-ma ancestor the Lga tribe', which suggests that they may be the famous Mgar/Hgar. Here, however, the most significant are the Dbra, whose name is evidently connected with the word hbra discussed supra (pp. 215-6); for in Il. 30-2 a place Hbra or Hbra-hldah (p. 319) is mentioned immediately after Haru-hldahma, as not shaken by the cataclysm which ruined the latter. This greatly enhances the probability that Hgru-hldan-ma is a placename. The Hgru might be connected with Gru, 'a district of Tibet lying to the east and north of Dbus' (central Tibet), and may have given a name to Gru-gu, a place near to Kad-ron, in Amdo (Geografia Tibeta, p. 54), and to Gru-gu Rgva-ra, 'a village in Khams' (S. C. Das's Dictionary). Upon this supposition the Hgru people would be the people of the Hgru (perhaps 'rock') country. and Hgru-hldan-hmah would be their (fictitious) town.

The second circumstance is the repeated mention of the htor-hpu(hbu, hphu)-hgru, which might mean the 'great Ḥgru men', since htor-hpu (hbu, hphu) has been found in the phrase htor-hpu-hbos, meaning 'the great big man or master'. This also we should be glad to avoid; and perhaps the rendering 'great upland (hbu = Tib. phu, as in hbu-rwye-hce, 'wide uplands', II. 15, 50) rocks or rock-recesses' may better fit the occurrences:

htor-hpu-hgru-dze, 29 in (not among) the htor-hpu-hgru' htor-hbu-hgru-dze, 33 i on (not among) the htor-hpu-hgru' htor-hpu-hgru-dze, 62 on (not among) the htor-hpu-hgru' tor-hpu-hgru-ge-hstor-mon-hdzon-re-htsa-hdzo-hkrom, 64 the tor-hpu-hgru having lost the Mon-castle...'

It is perhaps possible to acquiesce in this view.

There is, however, certainly another hgru, namely the Verb seen in the phrase hrim-ge-hgrus, Il. 293, 297, applied to some beings who perhaps 'exerted themselves all round' (hrim) the 'big man' (hpuhu-hbos) or 'on the watch mountain' (hscah-hyer-hri). Hgrus should be Preterite of Tib. hgru, 'take pains' (hgrus, 'zeal', 'diligence'). But it may be suspected that the whole phrase hrim-hgrus is an old, or dialectical, form of Tib. rim-hgro, 'ceremony', 'service', 'attendance upon', 'homage', with an o/u alternation to be discussed below (p. 369), and that Tib. gros, 'advice', 'counsel', 'heed' (gros-pa, gros-mi, 'counsellor', 'adviser'), is the same word.

At any rate hgru-ma, which is mentioned in the same context

as htor-hpu-hgru, must mean 'council'. The first mention of hgru-ma:

g-rah-g-yo-rbo-ge-hgru-ma-hti ||, 27

'the earthquake swelling up, the hgru-ma stopped' cannot mean 'the rocks do not (ma) stand still', because a few lines later we read:

hgru-hma-hkom-re-hrwad-hmon-hldah, 32-3

'hgru-ma being made, harsh noise (hrwad, see p. 257) was confused (?)'

and in 1, 77:

hlde-ge-hgru-ma-rman,

'the powers (authorities, nobles) dreamed, or conceived, of a hgru-ma'

and a few lines later:

hno-stor-prom-re-bgru-ma-stor ||

stor-hto-rta-yan-stor-to-hrun | 8 |, 79-80

'the friends having taken flight, the hgru-ma fled; [that] fled, the horse also had to flee'.

The hgru-ma was, accordingly, a sort of assembly, on the lines of the regular Tibetan hdun-ma and the gatherings mentioned as occurring among the Ch'iang tribes and similarly among rude peoples everywhere. Whether the term was current or was invented by the text with reference to Hgru-hldan-hmah or the Verb hgru may be left doubtful. Some playings with words have been noted supra (pp. 269, 285, 304); and they seem to have been frequent in the old Bon-po writings, which in their cosmologies, historical statements, &c., freely mixed realities with fantasies.

The occurrence of different meanings of hgru in adjacent contexts does not attain the level of such a collocation as \$\distal{i}\cdots \distal{i}\cdots are, as is shown by the corresponding Chinese writing, all different words, differing also from \$\distal{i}\distal{i}\distal{i}\cdots But in the Nam text assonances of like nature, if less concentrated, are to be reckoned with.

33. yan, hyan, g-yan, gyan, hgyan, hgyans, rgyan.

That this should be a troublesome group of words was to be anticipated in view of the situation in Tibetan, where we find:

A: yan = (1) 'though', 'even', 'also', 'again' (Sandhi variant of kyan, gyan), whence, in compounds, also

'further' or 'higher', e.g. yan-thog, 'highest story', yan-dag, 'very real', yan-ma, 'grandmother', yan-slob, 'pupil's pupil'.

- (2) 'light', e.g. in yan-lci, 'light and heavy'.
- (3) in the Tibetan manuscripts, yan-ba, 'conduit' or 'watercourse'.
- (4) in the Tibetan manuscripts 'evil' = rgyan, antithetic of byin-che, 'blessing', 'bliss'.

B: yans, 'wide', 'extensive'.

C: g-yań = (1) 'luck', 'prosperity'.

- (2) 'sheep' and 'goat', perhaps originally only a stuffed one, as an auspicious object.
- (3) 'gulf', 'abyss'.

D: gyań (1) for kyań, 'although', &c. (in the Tibetan manuscripts).

(2) 'clay stamped into moulds' for building, &c.

E: hgyan, hgyans, 'be delayed', 'tarry'.

F: rgyan = (1) 'distance'.

- (2) 'stretched'.
- (3) 'wall'.
- (4) in the Tibetan manuscripts-'evil'.
- (5) in the Tibetan manuscripts = rkyan, 'the wild ass'.

G: rgyans(-te) = 'in haste'.

bgyańs, brgyańs, 'stretched', = rkyań, brkyańs, rgyoń, rkyoń, 'stretch'.

It is fairly obvious that the forms with r-, except rkyan, 'the wild ass' and rgyan, 'evil', contain the general idea of stretching: whether in bgyans, 'stretched', the r- has, or has not, been lost may be an open question. The rgyan, 'evil', of the Tibetan manuscripts, is perhaps a perversion of g-yan, 'luck', which is the more likely inasmuch as yan occurs with the same sense.

Further, it is apparent that the r- forms are derivatives by means of the r/s Prefix, with an originally Active, Transitive, Causative, or Denominative function, from the Root seen in hgyan, hgyans, wherein, again, the idea of a 'stretch' is already present. But this hgyan, also, is a derivative, as we can see, from yans, 'wide', 'extensive'; and the g appears as a Prefix (the

Tibetan did not often confuse gy and g-y) in g-yan, 'gulf', 'abyss', in which possibly the original conception was that of 'yawning'. The yan, 'conduit', which the Tibetan manuscripts use as equivalent to the usual yur, is also properly 'the long', as we can see from the reference to 'quaffing water of the long-mouthed (kha-yans)', sc. of rivers and watercourses. We need not consider the other words, some of which seem to be connected with the ya of ya/ma 'upper/lower'.

We see that the r-Prefix at the time when it had a living function could be applied to forms from y- roots already equipped with the g-Prefix wherein that Prefix was no longer recognized as such. In fact the s/r-Prefix is never applied to initial y without the intervention of the g; so that Tibet has no words with initial sy or ry. We cannot connect this with the fact that in Amdo rgy- is commonly pronounced ry, this phenomenon being of too limited a range in space, and having no appearance of antiquity.

In the Nam text we can distinguish:

(a) yañ = 'also', 'even', 'though', ll. 79, 80, 92 (2), 119, 123, 127, 160, 161, 162 (2), 173, 180, 236, 242, 306, 332, 345: this is always in the caesura position, or in an equivalent position, except in ll. 236, 345 (in the latter corresponding to hkyañ, l. 344), where it is attached to a single word.

hyan = 'also', 'even', 'although', ll. 6, 24, 241, 249 (?), 255, 256, 300, 304; this also is in the caesura position, except in ll. 6, 24, 241, 249, exceptions similar to those in the case of yan.

gyań = 'although', l. 263, in the caesura position.

kyan = 'also', ll. 18, 98, 344, 372: attached to a single word.

(b) hyan = 'good' or 'upper', which latter is perhaps the original sense (\(\sqrt{y}a\)\), ll. 5, 10, 41, 66, 226, 287, 290, 316, 355, 383, 388: this, as Substantive or Adjective, is usually first in the verse (or clause) and the Subject of its sentence: only in l. 5 is it Predicate; often it is antithetic to mor. In ll. 63-4 hyan-so(hso) is of uncertain meaning.

g-yan-ra, l. 31, is likely to be identical ('good' or 'high' place) with the hyan-hrah of ll. 66, 226.

- (c) yan, 'conduit', 'watercourse', l. 355 (Chinese yang?).
- (d) hyan, 'conduit' ?, Il. 178, 179, 367, 391 (hldyan-hyan-hyo).
- (e) hgyań, a Verb, perhaps always signifying 'tarry', ll. 7, 77, 200, 217, 292 ('sto), 296, 392: always concluding its sentence: in l. 114 hkyań is written in error.

hgyańs, Preterite of the same Verb, l. 241 (cf. also hgyań-sto, l. 292, = hgyańs-to).

gyań-gyań, l. 92, may be the same Verb. hgyań, l. 153, is an error for hgyan, l. 158.

- (f) gyan-g-ri, l. 313, is not clear.
- (g) rgyan, 'extent', 'extensive', Il. 16, 52 (2), 55, 57, 147, 151, 152, 155: hkyan-rgyan, Il. 42, 81, 268.

rgyan, perhaps 'far', 'completely', l. 89. rgyan, possibly '(long) wall', l. 300.

- (h) kyan, ? sense, l. 192.
- (i) hkyan, error for hgyan, l. 114.
- (j) hkyań-rgyań, 'stove-bed' (?), Il. 42, 81, 268.
- (k) hkyan, 'serf', ll. 49, 141, 143, 274, 287, 291, 292 (2), 293.

The predominance of the form yan, 'also', &c., in comparison with the synonymous hyan, and its rarity in other senses, suggests that the h, which is also practically never joined to the other enclitics, ge, dze, na, ni, carried a slight increase of emphasis, and was not merely graphic.

34. Ra, rah, hrah, hrar, g-rah, hgrah.

For the most part there is no difficulty in equating these forms to Tib. ra, 'limited or enclosed space or sphere' or, according to its primary sense, 'enclosure', 'fence', 'circle': it is often used to form compounds, e.g. khrims-ra, 'yard before a court of justice', lcan-ra, 'willow grove', lug-ra, 'sheepfold', btson-ra, 'prison'. It is only necessary to add the personal sense in sku-ra, 'body enclosure', 'oneself', sgo-ra, 'door-enclosure', 'janitors', of the Tibetan manuscripts.

In the Nam text we may distinguish:

1. -r or -ra as a Locative Suffix with Substantives (Tib. -r, -ra, -ru), scanned either as a syllable or as unsyllable, even sometimes after -g or -n: see pp. 174, 178, where reference is made to the very numerous resulting confusions. The same use occurs after verbforms in phrases, hgah-hldonra¹-hnah, 1.302, 'where are no fugitive hgah', hrgyo-hseg-gsegra, Il. 330, 331 (hrbyo° gser), 'where hrgyo comes'.

The form hrar, ll. 216, 237, 243, 246, 248, always a dissyllable, is the Locative of ra itself.

raḥ, hraḥ, g-raḥ, usually mean 'place', e.g. in g-raḥ-hyos,
 Here perhaps intended for re: see p. 239.

'earthquake', ll. 8, 26, 27, 34, rgyed (hrgyed)-hrah (hrar), 'place of disunion', Il. 216, 243, 341, &c. This meaning fits even g-rah-gsoghner, Il. 7, 20; hrah-hrtah, Il. 77, 114, seems to mean 'the horse (-chief) of the place'. As terminal member of a compound, this ra/rah/hra/hrah is found, further, with skah-, 'saddle', l. 45, hho-, 'friend' (Il. 264, 279, &c.), hce-, 'great' (Il. 49, 50, 56), stan-hro-, 'high country' (l. 347), htham-, 'union' (l. 227), hphah-ma-, 'father and mother' (Il. 73-4), brah-, 'increase', &c. (l. 228), rman-, 'tomb' (l. 148), htsah-, 'harvest' (l. 277), hwah-, 'action' or 'government' (l. 353), hyan/g-yan-, 'good' or 'upper' (ll. 31, 66, 226), hran-, 'own' (ll. 21, 166, 167), gsah-, 'land' (l. 277), gśań-, 'enemy' (ll. 263, 273, &c.). The same appears as first member of the compounds hrah-hton (Il. 146, 273, 358), hrah-we (wehi, Il. 114, 139), 'give, or surrender, place'. The personal sense may be seen in mehi-hrah, Il. 78, 186, 369, mehi-spehi-hrah, I. 370, rgo-hrah, 315, skuhu-ra (?), 1. 7.

hrah/g-rah seems equivalent to Tib. dgra, 'enemy', in:

hrah-sñin-ñe-ge-stor-ta-hthog, 149, 'the evil-hearted enemy stopped flight'

g-rah-hsah-hkhehe-na, 314, 'in winning an enemy land or in any enemy's winning the land';

perhaps also in:

hrah-ldah-ge-hdzah ||, 43, 'the enemies there are friends' (but see p. 334)

hrah-hmad-hñe-nag, 202, 'low, evil-voiced enemies' (?)

g-raḥ-nag-hbo-gyan, 262-3, 'though enemy-voice swelled'; cf. hlab-ta-gbohu-ste (pp. 158, 231) and hśan-nag-rgyeshkom, pp. 320, 360.

heha-hgrah-nu, 239, 'strength of hostile ravenous beasts' hbron-hldah-hdzam-re-hrah-rte-hdubna, 182 (354 °hrahhrtre-hdub') 'the yak there being tamed, the enemy subsided'.

Here we might think of Tib. dgra-sde, 'enemy troop'; but elsewhere in the Nam text Tib. sde is represented by rdehe, 1. 213, hrde, 1. 301 (p. 270), while we find a grtehe in 1. 181, apparently meaning 'fix', and in 1. 265 gśan-ta-hrtehu, 'stopped' (?) 'hostilities', where the same Verb may perhaps be seen. In 1. 82, again, hcah-rte might be 'group of ravenous creatures' (p. 259), while in 1. 260 we have taken (p. 343) gdes as Preterite of a gde, hrde (= Hsi-hsia gdeh/hrde, 'fix', 'make certain' (Nevsky, No. 25, but gdeh, No. 24,

'rite', 'form', 'pattern')). A Hsi-hsia grdih (No. 34) is given as meaning 'cultivate', 'devote oneself', and a grdeh (No. 91) as 'shallow', 'vulgar', 'light', 'weak', and a hrtri (No. 201) as 'change'.

4. g-rah in :

hsu-re || hru-ge-g-rah-hdzam-nag ||, 275

'with horns attending, the g-rah gave mild (or friendly) voice', since the previous line speaks of 'dogs mildly panting', must be some animal; being horned, it is, no doubt, the goat = Tib. ra.

5. hgrah in sta-hldyan-htye(hthye)-dze-hmo-ge-me-hgrah, Il. 8, 20, 'the clouds (hmog) or heavens had fire hgrah', may be = Tib. sgra 'sound'. But ignorance of the meaning of htye (hthye) precludes a decision.

The form ro, which in Tibetan frequently helps to constitute names of countries and districts, e.g. Cog-ro, Myan-ro, Spag-ro, and which implies a larger area than does ra, occurs in 'this place (hro)', l. 333, and in compounds with hgo-, 'gate' or 'head' (?) (ll. 212-13), hchi-, 'go' (l. 345), stan-, 'upper' (l. 347), hldu- (l. 19), hldyan- (l. 386), hldyan-pah- (ll. 271-2), ldyo- (ll. 383-4), hldyo- (l. 384), hldyon- (l. 387), hpah-hldan- (l. 377), hpro- (l. 181), spo- (l. 381), mu- (l. 11).

35. hkah, hkhah.

Kha in Tibetan is properly 'mouth', 'face', 'surface', but also 'speech', 'word': there is another kha, usually employed, with the meanings 'occasion', 'time', 'place', as the second member of a compound, e.g. in hgro-khar, 'at the time of going', but also, in the same senses, with a preceding Genitive. There are further, kha, 'snow', and kha, 'bitter'. The first of all these is used as the prior number of a multitude of compounds, some with literal, others with metaphorical, meanings.

The signification 'mouth' is forthwith apparent in:

hyan-hrah-hkah-hldom-ge-ru-glan-ge-hthul-hi ||, 66-7

'mouth-tied in the proper, or upper, place, horned oxen are controlled';

cf. Tib. kha-sdom, 'to silence, gag'.

Hkah, hkhah, 'speech', is clear in:

hkah-gsan, 214, gsan-hkah, 204, hkhah-gsan, 329, 'secret speech'.

hkah-hran, 104, 'free to speak', hran-hkah, 117, 'free spoken'.

¹ This is perhaps exemplified in rhe-hldan-hkhar, 1, 197.

hkhah-hldah-hnahghi, 137, 'those entitled to speak should give voice'.

hwa-hkah, 137, 'doing and speaking' or 'talk of action'.

hsas-hkhah-ge, 116, 'talk about the child'.

hkhah-hldan-hnore-tsa-chah || hkanhi |||, 163, 'talk rising

foolish is the whole story (cha)' (?)

hkah-hgan-hjor, 194, 'all talk is babble' (Tib. ca-co, 'babble', co-re, cor-cor, 'sound of effervescence, klag-cor, 'clamour', 'noise', kha-bcol, 'prattle', col-chun, 'childish prattle', mu-cor, 'rudeness in speech', 'nonsense').

the-then-hldi-bàir-hkaḥ-hgaṅ-htsur, 207, 'to this wise [Hsihsia gàir (Nevsky No. 281) "wise"] folk-control all the talk

comes'.

rgyed-ma-hldan-ge-hkah-hcog-byin-ta, 104-5, 'when disunion rises, putting in a word (kha-cug (tsug) of the Tibetan manuscripts) is a blessing (byin, l. 57).

hkaḥ-hgo, 105 = Tib. kha-bsgo, 'giving directions' (or possibly 'understanding (Tib. go) advice').

hkah-hkhab, 105, 106, 'concealing what is said'.

hkah-hpyah-hldan, 327, 'were repaid (Tib. ldon) with rebuke' (Tib. hphya, 'censure', cf. kha-phog, 'rebuke', hphyar-kha, 'blame', &c.)¹?

It is not so certain in:

hkhab-hgro-ge-hkahi, 239, 'home-going is to be talked of',
'is the moment for home-going'?

rnam-skar-hkah-re-gdah-hnah-hgam ||, 191, 'when there is talk of, or it is a moment of, threatening stars, (any) available place is home'.

hyan-hkah-rdza, 287, 290, = hkhah-hrdza-hdze, 296, = hkah-hrdza, 296

where hyan certainly = 'good' or 'superior' and hrdza appears from its other occurrence, l. 382, to be a derivative from hdza, 'friend' and to mean 'in friendly union'. The hkah-rdza are connected with stsah, ll. 288, 290, and hswah, l. 296, both of which have been found (pp. 276-8) to denote 'watching' or 'supervision'. The sense might be 'united in counsel'; but Tibetan has an expression kha-rje, 'great lord', 'good luck', 'fortune', 'good', 'wealth', which, since the meanings do not follow from kha+rje, might be a

¹ Or possibly 'paid command-impost (dpya)' (metaphorical). In the Tibetan MS. Chronicle (British Museum portion, l. 18) appears the phrase bkah-šo, 'special command-levy'.

perversion of a kha-rdza: the meaning 'great lord' might suit the Nam passages.

There remains the expression:

hke-hkah, 152, 153, hkehe-hkah, 158, hkehu-hkah, 364, kehuhkah, 178 (-dwań 364, rwań 178: cf. Tib. lab-dwańs).

The word hke, &c., which appears also in the phrase hke-prom, l. 176, kehu-prom, ll. 176, 360, 361, hkehu-prom, ll. 177, 178, 360, 362, 366, gehu-prom, l. 362, should not be different from the hke in hke-plan-hdra, ll. 195, 356, which has been found to mean 'gain', 'profit', and which, as a Verb, has been seen in ll. 36 (hkes, Preterite), 125 (hkehe), 251, 314 (hkhehe), 212 (hkhe(hi))—the other instances, ll. 15, 41 (hke(hi)) are not recalcitrant. The verse:

hke-hkah-ñes-re-ske-hbrus-hgyanni, 152-3 hkehe-hkah-ñes-re-ske-hbro-hgyan, 158 should therefore mean:

'if trade (or profit)-talk is faulty, the throat (Tib. ske), irritated or inflamed (Tib. hbru, brus, "probe", "irritate"), itches (Tib. g-yan)',

a sentiment in harmony with the context, which here enlarges upon bad beginnings. It will be seen that the hbro of l. 158, meaning 'be sick', confirms the interpretation of hbrus in l. 152.

It must be admitted, however, that we have not solved all the difficulties connected with hke/hkehu. In the passage (ll. 165 sqq., cf. ll. 358 sqq.) concerning the distribution of the exercise and the fire of speech (hkohu-prom, ome) we suddenly come upon the statement:

hban-hldah-hne-ge-hkehu-me-hdzah ||, 170 'good potentates eat the fire of $\hbar ke\hbar u$ '

and somewhat later:

rńe-hpo-hldo-ge-hkehu-prom-hjo-na, 177 hrńe-hpo-hñe-ge-hkohu-prom-hdzoho-na, 361–2

'the fiend braves (or evil fiend braves) ate the exercise of hkehu or hkohu'.

It is undeniable (see infra, p. 368) that a hke, hkehu, might exist as a form of kha, 'mouth', so that hkehu-prom, 'me, would be synonymous with hkohu ('speech')-prom, 'me; and in the above quoted ll. 152-3, 158, we might then translate hke(hkehe)-hkah, 'mouth speech', which would yield a good antithesis to ske, 'throat'. But this would fail to do justice to the apparently purposive alternative of hkohu and hkehu in ll. 165-80 and 358-65;

and we are, further, quite at a loss to interpret the pointed antithesis of keḥu(hkeḥu)-hkaḥ and ldyan(hldyan)-ḥkaḥ in ll. 177-8 and 364-5.

36. Words with initial ld.

Since it has already (p. 286) been seen that Nam ld- may correspond to Tibetan d- and ld-, the l being, at any rate in some of the instances of ld, a Prefix often found alternating in Tibetan itself with other Prefixes attached to identical roots, and that it may correspond to Tibetan l- and lh-, which in Tibetan also sometimes alternate with ld-, we may here briefly deal with some recurrent words in the Nam text which manifest this feature. We may pass over:

- (a) the Suffixes hldah(ldah, hlda, lda), hldo; (b) the Pronouns hlda, hldi; (c) the words hldah/ldah, hlde/hldehi/hldehe, hldoh, 'depart', 'flee', = Tib. hdoh, hldah (278) and hdah (58, 59), 'arrow', = Tib. mdah = Hōrpa lda. There remain:
- (i) hldag/gldag = Tib. ltag (hdzur; ska; hbah; khri; khyag). This word, discussed supra (pp. 259-60) as occurring in the compound hldag/gldag-nag, 'black-back', has the sense of 'load' (Tib. ltan) in:

skaḥ-raḥ-ḥdzur-dze-ḥldag-ḥbaḥ-ḥldon ||, 45

'if the saddle (Tib. sga, but cf. ska-rags, "girdle")-place is awry (Tib. hdzur, bzur, gzur, "step aside", "shy", zur, "corner" "aside"), the load goes rocking (?dbah, "wave") or "into a hole" (hbah)'

gldag-hee-rgyan-na-hldag-khri-khyag-re-háid ||, 52

'if the load is very large, the load support (khri) bending (Tib. hkhyog/khyog), it comes to grief'.

(ii) hldan, hldon = Tib. lan, lon, 'retaliate', 'reply', ldon, glon, 'pay back', 'return'.

Hldan occurs in the phrases hldam(hdzam°, hjam°)-re-hldan in: cig-dze-htor-hldam-re-hldan ||, 186-7, 187-8, 188-9 (meaning obscure, see pp. 305-6)

gśań-hrah-htoń-kya-hńoho-hjam-re-hldan, 273, cf. 274, 275 'to enemy-abandoned crops friends returned mild';

also in:

hrgyah-hdihi-htron-re-hkah-hpyah-hldan ||, 327-8 'come to this plain (?), are repaid with verbal reproof' (Tib. hphya, 'reprove', ? see supra, p. 315)

Hldon can be Imperative (Optative) of hldan in: hlde(hldehe)-ge-htah-hldon, 370, 371, 372 'let prosperities return'.

- (iii) hldab, hdab = (1) Tib, hdab, 'wing', 'leaf'; (2) Tib, hdebs, btab, hldab, hdab, gdab, 'cast', 'put', 'sow', 'found';
 - hbo-hkom-ldyan-dze-hldab-hde-hde ||, 12
 On the dry (?) forests lifted high the foliage fluttered (?)
 - (2) mu-hrog-htro(hdro)-re-rman-hldab-g-we, 197 'cold (sc. the dead) helped by heat (or 'when the black cold comes'?), tomb-foundation is made' With this use of hldab cf. Tib. gur-hdebs, 'pitch a tent', dgon-pa-hdebs, 'found a monastery'.

The form hdab appears in:

mehi-hrah-hdab-na, 369
'appointing, or stationing, sentinels'
on mehi-hrah see pp. 218-2, 313.

(iv) hldam, hldom, hltom, ldom, hdam, hdom, dam, hrdam, = Tib. hdom, hdoms, gdams, dams, gdam, 'exhort', 'demonstrate', 'select', sdom, bsdoms, bsdams, bstams, 'bind', 'fasten', 'stop', 'confirm', sdom, 'obligation', 'engagement', 'vow', hdam, 'choose', 'select', gdam-ka, 'choice', gdams, 'advise', &c., dam, 'bound', 'vow', 'promise', 'seal', 'firm', 'narrow', &c. Further cognates of this prolific root are to be seen in tham-ga, 'seal' (stamp), thams, 'hold', 'stick fast', the original and central idea having been that of 'bind', 'be made fast': (ru-glan; hthul; hdag).

Instances of hldam, 'tamed', have been given under (ii). Hldom, 'bound', is seen in na-hldom, 'house slave', ll. 41, 143, 350, gdim-chis-ldom (l. 88 hltom)-re, 'under the sway of transience' (see infra, p. 320), ll. 94, 95, and in:

śe-rgo-hldom-dze, 258-9, 'when the wise have their doors fastened'

hkrug-kyan-hldom-re, 371-2, 'strife also being quelled' hpha-ma-sñan-ne-ge-ru(bu)-lta-ge-sñan-glan-hgahi hyan-hrah-hkah-hldom-ge-ru-glan-ge-hthul-hi ||, 66-7

horn") are tamed (Tib. hdul, btul, dul, thul)."

'Affectionate father and mother, looking at a child, rejoice (? Tib. dgaħ) with affection increased (glaħ, "returned"?)' 'Mouth-bound (Tib. kha-sdom, "gag", "silence") in the right (hyaħ) place, horned oxen (Tib. glaħ-ru, "bullock's

The children are a 'tie'.

hrah-[hyos-]hldom, 9, 'the earth movement was stopped (?) '.

In II. 298-9 g-rihi-hldom is perhaps only a variant of hrihihdom ('bear') of 1. 297.

Hdom, 'decision', appears in:

hkhwi-htsa-hyog-hdag-ci-hran-hdom-gdes | , 259-60

'the old, equipped (hdaq) with staves (Tib. yog-po), fixed their decisions'.

Hdam, 'bound', occurs perhaps in:

hdzam-hbron-hron-dze-hdam-to-hbu-hpor, 68

'in tame-yak gorges tied [animals] have their heads (Tib. dbu, Hsi-hsia wu) released (Tib. hbor, "cast away", "let go", p. 250 supra).'

Cf. hnu-glan-hpor, Il. 175, 359 (phor), 'the young oxen are released', hdro-hphor, Il. 180, 353, 'released to go' (p. 250 supra). In the sense of 'checked' hdam is applied in I. 326 to hse-htah, 'injuries', 'harms', and therefore also in Il. 328, 329, to hkhoh-htah, hkhohdah. In Il. 346, 351, hdam-sleg, partly obscure, may contain hdam in the sense of Tib. dam, 'vow', 'promise', 'bond'; on dam-rma-hbroh, see p. 286. P[h]yu-phya-hdam, I. 204, is obscure, and in hpo-hdam-htor, I. 393, the context is wanting.

In hrhe-hrdam-hte, l. 322, 'fiends (enemies) bound, or quelled', hrdam regularly corresponds to a Tibetan s- form, sdam.

On hdom = Tib. dom, 'bear', see p. 254.

(v) hldar, hdar = Tib. ldar, 'be weary, faint', or hdar, 'quake, tremble', 'shiver', sdar-ma, 'timid', 'trembling': (hbraḥ-hldaḥ; hyob; hkye; ḥyuḥu).

A hldar with this sense might be recognized in:

hbron-hldar-hdzam-re, 353, 'the yak being tame with trembling (or exhaustion)'

and that is not to be rejected. But in I. 182 the reading is:

hbroń-hldah-hdzam-re, 'the yak there (hldah = Tib. da, as in l. 195) being tame'.

The divergence of the two passages might be attributed to the easy scriptural confusion of r and h.

In Il. 30-1, 31, 32, occurs the phrase:

hbrah(hbra)-hldar-ma-hyob

where an analogous doubt exists. Is the meaning 'Hbrah (p. 308) was not fluttered (Tib. g-yob) with quaking', or 'in Hbrah-hldah

(hldar Locative of Suffix hldah) there was no quaking'? Hdar, 'tremble', 'shiver', appears in:

rbyo-hphah-hdar-dze-hkye-ge-hmu ||, 38-9

'when the father rbyo (see pp. 332-3) shivers, the offspring (hkye = Hsi-hsia hgyi (Nevsky, No. 282) = Tib. skye, skyes, "be born", "creature", khye-bo, khyehu, "child") are cold 'hràam-hdar-hyuhu, 368, 'the district (Tib. yul? cf. p. 333) trembles with affright'. (But the parallel in l. 49 has nar.)

(vi) hldas = Tib. hdah, hdas, 'pass'. rbyo-ha-ge(hge)-hcah-rte-hyu-rgyag-dze-hldas, 82-3 'the rbyo... went over to the hcah' (p. 259).

(vii) hldi, hldis, hldin = Tib. ldin, 'float', 'soar'. hldi-ma-hrtah, 63, 71 (rtah), 144, 'the horse does not leap

(gallop)'

htor-hrtah-hldi[-]r[e], 337, 'the great horse galloping' rtahi-swa-hldi[-]r[e], 174, 'the horse galloping on guard' sku-mag-no-dze-me-na-hldis, 58, 'the body in battle leaps (? is laid spread)² in fire' (hldis Aorist)

hśi-hchos-re-ge-hpu-myi-hldin ||, 160, 'born in winter, the bird does not fly'.

(viii) hldim, hldyim, gdim, ddyim, hdim, dim = Tib. hthim, thim, gtim, stim, 'be lost, dissolved, absorbed', 'evaporate', 'vanish', 'steal away' (chim, chis, tshim, tshis, hdzam-hdzim).

héan-nag-rgyes-hkom-chim-hldim-ge-hphah-rman, 199
'when enemy voice (Tib. nag: see infra, p. 360, and supra, p. 313), or black (Tib. nag) enemy, has attained extension (rgyes), come and gone (impermanent) are fathers' tombs'.

Tibetan *hchim* means 'be full', and with it is connected, no doubt, *tshim*, 'be satisfied': possibly the original notion was that of 'full manifestation'. Considering the resemblance of *m* and *s* in the script and the rarity of roots in -s (*mchis*, 'be there', is Aorist of *mchi*, 'come'), it seems likely, though *chis* might, like *gdim*, be Aorist or possibly Instrumental in -s (see *infra*, p. 359), that *chim* is the correct reading in:

gdim-chis-ldom-re-htsog-hldan-hstan || dim-tshis-ldom-re-tshog-hldan-hdun ||, 94-5

'Controlled by going and coming (impermanence), union rises high (Tib. sten, stan):

On final n/n see p. 362: in E. Colonial Tibetan the form is din.
 Cf. Tib. hdin, 'spread', sdins, 'level eminence', 'tableland'.

Controlled by going and coming, union rising falls (Tib. ltun) or is distressed (Tib. gdun)'.

hdim-htshis-hltom(= hldom)-re-htso[g]-hldan-stan

gdim-pyi-hse-ge-gsom-rgyag-hsor-don-htshog-me-hldyimrgyan

gdim-phyi-hse-ge-htshog-hram-hnad ||, 88-90.

In this second passage:

htshog-me-hldyim-rgyan = 'the fire of union disappears far' htshog-hram-hnad = 'union evaporates (Tib. nad, cf. p. 217)'.

Hence gdim(ddyim, 11.95-6)-phyi-hse-ge must mean 'harm from outside (phyi), or subsequent (phyi) harm, being vanished (from thought = gsom-rgyag-hsor, cf. p. 258)'.

gdim-hdzam-hdzim-re-hko-wehi-htuhu ||, 100

'the hdzam-hdzim ("bustle"?; cf. Tib. zan-zin, "miscellaneous objects", "confused") having subsided, they assembled, making room'.

What is the meaning of hldim in:

rñe-ne-g-ri-dze-hldim-hphu-hman, 301

'evil and good on the mountain there are many hldim-hphu' echoed in l. 310 by hldim-hman-hto ||, 'there are many hldim'? They seem to be classes of creatures, real or imagined.

(ix) hldu, hlduhu, hldun, htuhu, hthu, hthus, = Tib. hdu, hdus, 'collect', 'unite', hdun, 'council', 'counsel', 'companion', qdu, 'mingle', sdud, bstus, bsdus, sdus, bsdu, 'collect', &c., sdum, 'agreement', stun, 'agree', hthu, thu, btus, btu, hthun, 'gather', 'pick': (hswar; hdzom; hjim).

Hldu, hlduhu:

htan-hldu-hldyan-ge, 14, 'the joined fields (risen) high'

hldu-ro-hgru, 19, 'the assembly-place a corner (or rock)'

hswar-hldu-sto (= hldus-to)-dze, 28, 'in a closing of fingers (Tib. sor)', sc. in an instant.

hlduhu-ce-rgyan-na, 51, 'if accumulation (store) is of great extent'

gcog-hlde-hldu-dze, 69-70, 'on the joined warm (?) meadows' hsehe-hldu-hru-re-dze, 238, 'on all the peaks where the hse ("fiends", or "tops") meet'.

Hldun:

hrim-hdzom-htah-hldun ||, 284, 'the joining (Tib. hdzom "meet", "interlace") [torches] gathered'

htor-hśo-hti-ge-htah-hldun, 354, 'great hśo- parties meet'.

Htuhu (hthuhu), hthu, hthus (Aorist):

ldyo-stor-hthu-re, 140, 'when the ldyo in flight gather' hjim-ta-hthusni, 156, 'salves (p. 280 n.) were gathered'.

With spelling htuhu an instance has been given supra (p. 321).

(x) hlduhu = Tib. gdu, 'covet', 'hanker after', gduh, 'desire', 'burn', 'torment': (brehe).

bos-smyi-hldog-ge-ses-gsi-hlduhu || htsah-htsah-hdzan-ge-ses-hsi-brehe, 43-4

'when the master is a hldog man, the knowing man covets

'when the harvest (or land, hsah)-overseer is wise, the knowing man fears death'.

Brehe may be a d-less form of Tib. bred, 'fear', 'be dejected or ashamed', and connected, moreover, with hbre, bres, 'screen off', 'envelope'. Hbres, l. 176, is probably the Preterite of the same.

On hldog see infra (p. 323): htsah-htsah has been discussed on pp. 280-1.

(xi) hldug: (kyen): the-kyen-hldug, 103.

The = 'lieges', 'common people': in regard to hldug, Tib. hdug/ldug/sdug have too many and contradictory meanings to furnish ground for inference. Kyen may be = Tib. skyen, 'quick', 'rash', 'dexterous': elsewhere the 'lieges' are styled hyan, 'good' (l. 383), and snan-ne, 'good-hearted' (l. 160), but also kruhu, 'canaille' (l. 334).

(xii) hldo-, do-ldo, hldohu (hrim-hldohu):

Whether in seg-sme-hldo, l. 375, rhe-hpo-hldo, l. 177, hbri-slodhldo, 1, 381, the hldo is a Suffix is uncertain: on the analogy of hloge-blah-hldoh, l. 154, mehi-hgab-hldo, l. 155, it should be so.

On 1. 110 hldoho see supra, p. 294.

Do-ldo-hdzo-chań, 1. 76, = [do]-hldo-hdzor-re, 1. 77, = do-ldohdzo-hpehi, l. 353, may contain in do-ldo an equivalent of Tib. ldo-ldo, 'for a short time' (sc. casually), perhaps derived from ldo, 'the side of anything', and meaning 'bit by bit'. But hdzo/hdzor is uncertain: possibly 'eat', as in pp. 334-5. Hldohu occurs only in hldohu-hjam-rno, 1. 277, and hrim-hldohu, 1. 300, hrim-rehldohu, l. 319: it should not be = Tib. lo, 'circle', as suggested by the context, since in Il. 154, 275, that word, in the sense of 'troop', 'company', recurs as hlo. But it must have some kindred meaning, since in l. 277 the reference is to groups of persons: it is perhaps = Tib. ldo, 'side', so that hrim-hldohu may mean 'on all sides round'.

(xiii) hldog = Tib. log/ldog, 'turn back, away', 'rebel', 'be recalcitrant', 'perverted', 'wrong': (hrpehi).

The appropriate sense is seen in:

hdzań-hkhor-hkrug-hkyań-hyogs-hldog, 18

'retinue of wise men at strife, servants recalcitrant'

bos-smyi-hldog-dze, l. 42, 'when the master is a perverse person'; so also in 43-4

mor-gdag-hgom1-re-hdzań-hldog-stor, 141-2

'when the wicked acquire mastery, the wise flee away'

perhaps also in:

hldah-hrgam-hstsag-hldog-hpo-hrbom-htoho ||

po-rbom-hnor-[re-]hldog-g-yah-to-dze . . ., 316-17

'when those in the community there are averse to unity (?), the chief is aggrandized':

'if, the aggrandized chief being foolish, the recalcitrant are in the ascendant . . .'

Not quite to be expected is the sentiment in:

rpehi-hldah-hrgam-re-hldog-hyah-hthan, 286

'if the exemplary (?) are taken into the community, the recalcitrant are in the ascendant'

because in l. 169 we read:

hrgom-hkhru[-]r[e]-hto-na-hrpehi-hrgam-re-hto

'the canaille (hkhru) being passed over (hrgom), the exemplary were taken into the community'.

concerning which see pp. 244, 296–7. *Rpehi* would well correspond to Tib. *dpe*, 'pattern', 'example'; cf. *rpag* = Tib. *dpag*. The word recurs, no doubt, in the mutilated passage:

bos - [smyi - hld]o[g - dz]e-[rpe]hi - ge - hdzah - na - spehi - ge || hthon ||, 378–9.

(xiv) hldor, 357, is possibly = hldo-re, just as the rather frequent hldir is always = hldi-re.

Hgom, which does not recur, will be - hkom (p. 200).

II. SOME PHONOLOGICAL PARTICULARS

1. ldy, &c.

So far we have been dealing with forms which, though not Tibetan, can be compared with Tibetan without going outside the phonological relations which can be shown to hold within the vocabulary of Tibetan itself. But there is one initial group of consonants, occurring in a number of puzzling words, some of them very frequent, which is unexampled in Tibetan and which, until somehow explained, precludes an interpretation of the text as a whole. This is the group ldy, with which we may associate the few occurrences of dy, ty, ty. These cannot correspond directly to anything in Tibetan, because Tibetan, not tolerating y after dentals, has no ldy-, dy-, ly-, ty-, ty-, ty-, ty-

It might be suggested that ldy is a development from rgy-(lgy), or rby-(lby), with an l- due, perhaps, to contact with China: and we might point to actual instances of such change, e.g. Mo-so diager, 'India', evidently a borrowing of Tib. rgya-gar, to the rdyalsa = Tib. rgyal-sa, 'seat of royalty', in the Rgyal-ron song quoted by Dr. Tafel (supra, pp. 85–6), and to Dr. Tafel's other spellings with rdy-, 'set down in the course of his travels in northeastern and eastern Tibet. But such a suggestion is precluded by

the frequency of rgy-, rby-, in the Nam itself.

Perhaps we may be helped by considering what was in early Tibeto-Burman languages the form of the word for '4'. The modern forms, collected in *Linguistic Survey of India*, volume i, Part II, 'Comparative Vocabulary', are far too numerous for citation; but the most common types may be indicated as follows:

- (a) forms with initial l- only, such as lt, lt: these are found all over the Tibeto-Burman area, in Himālayan dialects, Lolo-Mo-so, Nāgā dialects, languages of Burma, &c.;
- (b) forms with initial p-only, such as pt, pt, or py-, by-: these are not much less common and widespread than those with l-;
- (c) forms with p+l or b+l or f+l, such as pli, bli, vli, pali, pili, buli, falī, fili (mili, &c.): these are similarly common and widespread;
- (d) forms with p+r, b+r, or f+r, such as (ka)-preī, kam-brin,
 brè, brī, brui, firi (mari, &c.): a less common variant of (c);
- (e) forms with d: diā (D'īmāl, a Himālayan dialect), ka-dī

¹ [r]Dyalbo, r Dyarong, &c. (see Index).

(Gyārūng, but ka-plis-si, '40', ko-plī (Rgya-ron), '4'), bi-di, bi-d'i, pedi, pa-dāi, mu-dai, &c. (Nāgā);

- (f) forms with a sibilant, such as Tibetan bži, Šarpa śi, &c.: these are found only in the Tibetan group and are probably in all cases (including Thōchū gzha(-re), '4', ghyi-so, '40') borrowed from Tibetan;
- (g) forms with ld: ldi = '4', ldih, lda, zlah, lha, are attested in Tibetan script for Hsi-hsia (Nevsky, No. 93).

It will be observed that the p+l(r), b+l(r) are found in the same regions as p and l separately and that the l(r) never precedes the p(b). It seems to follow that the p(b)+l is an original combination and that the forms with p simply or l simply are degenerations of forms with p(b)l.

The forms with d are rare and scattered: it is to be noted that the Gyārūng, which for '4' has $ka-d\bar{\imath}$ (Rgya-ron $ko-pl\bar{\imath}$), has at the same time for '40' the form with pl ($ka-plis-s\bar{\imath}$). In view of the Rgyal-ron forms and, further, of Tākpa $bl\bar{\imath}$ and numerous equivalents in Himālayan dialects, and moreover of Loutse and Kioutse $bl\bar{\imath}$, the form with bl- may be said to dominate the whole eastern and southern border of Tibet, and it is perhaps represented also by the Lo-lo forms $sl\bar{\imath}$, &c., with s or sh for b, as in Rgya-ron slu, 'lungs', &c.

The only form approaching (and indeed by about four to five centuries surpassing) in antiquity the Hsi-hsia *ldi* are the Tibetan *bži* and the Žaň-žuň *pī* (*JRAS*. 1933, p. 408).

Tibetan \dot{z} is constantly found in relation, as is natural, to j (c), e.g. in:

žiň, žes, particles alternating with cin (jiň), ces.

gžal, bžal, bžag, bžig, bžugs, žugs, žu, bžo, žo, connected with the Verbs hjal, 'weigh', hjog, 'put', hjig, 'destroy', hjug, 'enter', hju, 'melt', hjo, 'milk'.

gżah, gżońs, gżom = hjah, 'rainbow', ljońs, 'valley', hjoms, 'conquer'.

Since j is not found with the Prefixes g, b, while \dot{z} , which does occur with these, is not found with m, b, r, l, all of them common with j, the alternation shows the influence of a preceding consonant. The breathed sibilant \dot{s} follows the rule for its voiced correlate \dot{z} . Presumably \dot{s} and \dot{z} differ from c and j simply as being

 $^{^1}$ Prejevalsky (trans. ii, p. 138) gives 'Tangut' bjeh = Tib. bží (apparently with English j).

spirants, i.e. by omission of stop-contact, which is natural, though not inevitable, after the contact required for g and b: it may be noted that Hsi-hsia in Tibetan script has both gj and bj, and Tibetan itself has gc and bc. Conceivably the effort of making the change from voice (g) to breath (c) fortifies the utterance in making

the second contact (c).

The Tibetan sibilant in $b\dot{z}i$ is therefore non-original in Tibetan itself. If accordingly we write it bji, it cannot be derived from bdi, but may represent a form bdyi, since we see that dy does not survive in the language. Such a form may be akin to the Nāgā forms $bi \cdot di$, $bi \cdot d'i$, pedi, noted under (e); but it disregards the l, which, as is manifest under (a), (c), (d), and (g), is the sound most widely and numerously found in the Tibeto-Burman words for '4'. Therefore we must write bldyi, possibly derived from a very early original $ba \cdot li$ or $pa \cdot li$, which became successively $ba \cdot lyi$, $ba \cdot ldyi$, bldyi, where it was not preserved, as it may have been in Lepcha $fa \cdot li$ and similar forms. The forms bli or bldyi will account for all the types li, pli, pre, pi, as well as those with d (for ld), $bi \cdot di$, &c., for those with ld (Hsi-hsia ldi), and for the Tibetan $b\dot{z}i = bii = bldyi$.

It is accordingly among words with initial \dot{z} , so rare in Nam (or j, in cases where there is no preceding g- or b-), that we should look for equivalents of the Nam initial ldy-, dy-. The commonest word, hldyan, which by reason of an antithesis to hldyon might seem to offer the best hold, occurs so variously as to suggest a complex derivation; and forms with yi, e.g. ldyi can always be orthographical or other alternatives of those with i, ldi. Hence we may

take the words in the order of convenience merely.

 hldyo, ldyo, hldyoho; hldyo-hro (hbyohu; hnus; na-htsah-ste; htrog; hnus).

The verse:

ldyo-stor-hthu-re-hdrab-stor-htoho ||, 140

has already (p. 254) been translated:

'when the ldyo in flight collect together, the hdrab (ravenous animals) flee'

a rendering apposite in its context. Further, it has been suggested (pp. 254, 256) that in the phrase hkohu-mehe-hldyo |||, ll. 171-2, which clearly signifies a deprival of the 'fire' (power) of speech, hldyo, introduced by a paronomasia, really means 'milked out', the context containing references to 'suppressing' (htul), 'eating',

(hdzah), and 'snatching away' (hdrab) the same 'fire'. The significations 'cow' and 'milk' are united in Tib. hjo, bžos, bžo, gžo, 'to milk', hjo-ma, 'milch-cow', žo, 'milk'. As previously suggested, the root, when used as a designation of animals, does not properly denote merely cows, but includes all 'milkers', i.e. animals used for milk-supply: and this is the sense of Tib. bžon-ma, 'cow, ewe, or she-goat, that is yielding milk; a gen. term for such cattle'.

A Verb hldyoho (hldyo) is seen also in:

hnu[-]r[e]-hnah-rgyen-na-hnu-hldo-hldyoho ||, 355

'absence of all weeping being arranged (rgyen), weeping was milked away' (p. 256).

In the sense of 'milch-cattle' the word recurs in:

hdom-hgu-htshuhu-hyan-hman-hldyo-hrgam, 303-4

'though bears come, many milch-cattle are in company' (ibid).

The meaning 'milk' may be traced in the ldyohu of:

hśań-hdzah-hldyim-hyań-ldyohu-ma-hbyohu, 255

'though garbage-eating was sweet [sc. to the cattle], the milk was not poured out (Tib. byo, hbyo) [sc. dripped or poured away?]'

The above may teach why a part of the country is distinguished from other parts as hldyo-hro, 'ranch-country (?)', in:

hdzam-hbroń-hroń-dze-hldyo-hro-hpehi ||, 384

'in tame-yak gorges is an example (?) of "ranchland "'

and this, again, may explain the phrase:

hldyo-hdom-nag, 162, 171, 'the black bears of the ranch [-country]'.

The phrase hldyo-htor-ge-hnus, Il. 16, 34, 50 (tor for htor-ge): in:

hbu-rwye-hce-rgyan-dze-hldyo-htor-ge-hnus ||, 15-16

'on the wide expanded uplands, the great ranch[-cattle] suckled (Tib. nu, nus)'

we have, however, to discover a misfortune of the cataclysm time: it might, indeed, be dripping udders (Tib. nu) or premature calving. In Il. 33-4 it is on the na-htsah-ste = na-htsas-te, perhaps the 'harvested meadows (Tib. na, btsas: see p. 239)' that 'the ranch-cattle dripped or suckled'. By reason of uncertainty as to the meaning of htrog we cannot interpret:

htrog-htor-te-dze-hldyo-ge-nus, 40

(can htrog be = hbrog, 'high pastures' (see p. 5)? In the Tibetan

manuscripts we find ye-hdrog written for ye-hbrog), nor is hldyohrje-hbro in l. 36 clear. But htrog, 'enemy', is possible.

If hldyo properly means 'milk', 'to milk', we should expect to find some trace of it not only, as we do find, in Tibetan, but elsewhere also in Tibeto-Burman. One Hsi-fan dialect (d'Ollone, No. 35) has for 'milk' lio niu niu, in which the two last syllables may be the Chinese for 'cow'. Conceivably there might be a primitive relation between ldyo and Chinese zu (Ancient 'nziu, Karlgren, No. 48).

hldya, hldyah: (stoň; hkhog; hňor; yaň, hyaň; sko).
 This word occurs in:

hlduhu-ce-rgyan-na-ston-hkhog-re-hldya-hkan-hte-hnor, 51-2 'An accumulation (store, Tib. hdu-khan?) of (too) great extent, with empty (unfilled) interior (Tib. ston, khog), has its goods (hnor = Tib. nor, as in 1. 50) filled with hldya'.

Here the meaning 'water' would suit, since ordinarily the store-place would be a pit (don). In Hsi-fan we find Mānyak dyāh, 'water'; and this may also be Menia djo or djui, Muli $dj\bar{o}$, Pa-U-Rong dji, Mo-so dji (Lo-lo, ji, yi- $di\acute{e}$, i dia, dia dia?), also it may be Hsi-hsia tsei, dsei, jei (Laufer, No. 37). These, however, are merely a beginning: we must add the whole army of forms, such as $t\bar{i}$, di, $t\bar{u}i$, $d\bar{w}i$, found in the western Himālaya and all over the Tibeto-Burman world; among which forms the $t\bar{i}$ of Kanaurī, &c., may be singled out, as found in a Žan-žun manuscript of the ninth to tenth century A.D. (JRAS. 1933, p. 408). These may be referred to an original form tya/dya (cf. the forms $p\bar{u}$, by the side of pya = Tib. bya, 'bird'), and possibly forms with a, such as $ch\bar{a}$, may have retained the original final vowel. The many forms with u, $t\bar{u}i$, &c. (including Tib. cu/chu < *tyu), may point to a primary twya, parallel to bwya, 'bird' (cf. Tib. phywa, 'lot').

On the etymological side Nam hldya = 'water' may therefore

¹ In l. 254 the metre warns us to read: hldyo-htor-hmyi-na || (instead of "hmyi || na) and the translation will be:

'the great herds were without sickness' (p. 239), this being one of several particulars of a time of prosperity. Accordingly the recurrent hldyo-htor-ge-hnus (ll. 16, 34, 40 (omit htor)), which has the contrary implication, must denote some illness of the herds, perhaps the same which is indicated by the ldyohu-ma-hbyohu of l. 255. This confirms the interpretation of htrog-htor-te-dze, which will be a variant of the hbu-rwye-hce-rgyan-dze of ll. 15-16.

be defensible. As further evidence of the actuality, we may quote:

hyan-re-rgyen-na-yan-hldyah-hldyah¹ ||, 355-6

'each conduit being in order, the conduits were water, water
[se, flowed continuously]'

for hyan, here necessarily a substantive, occurs (as noted p. 311), in the Tibetan manuscripts with the signification here adopted and no other seems apposite. The only other instance of hldyah occurs in the next line (following a reference to 'fires let loose', thar-mye), where there is a question of 'allotment of work' (g-wehe-sko-hbab, cf. Tib. las-sko): it may be noted that in a document from Central Asia (Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, pp. 139-40), in connexion with a distribution of field-work, there is a reference to drying-up of the water (chab-skam).

If hldyah means 'water', 'water-flow', it will not be an accident that Tib. bżah, i.e. bjah < *bdyah or *bldyah (cf. bżi, '4'), means 'moist', 'wet'.

 hldi, hldyi, hldyihi, hldihi: (hmu; hrhu; skhrud; hre; rgyo; hphu; hsig; hldyeg; hti).

It has been suggested supra (p. 276) that in:

hmu-hrhu-skhrud-dze-mor-htan-[hgras] ||

hldi-hrkah-hldyan-dze-hyan-htan-hgras, 9-10

On the hmu, fleeing in pain (Tib. rhu, skrud), the evil power was arrayed:

On the hldi, risen steep (Tib. dkah), the good power was arrayed'

hmu should be the 'sky' (Hsi-hsia mu/mo (Laufer, No. 34); Hsi-fan, &c., mo/mon), and hldi consequently 'earth'. The epithet rkah, 'steep', is applied to gsah, 'land', in l. 333 (infra, p. 338).

Ldi = 'earth', is, in fact, attested for Hsi-hsia (Nevsky, No. 189, Laufer, No. 40, le/lo). In the Nam text we find among the occurrences of hldi no further examples; all instances of hldi, hldir (= hldi-re), seeming to represent hldi, 'this', or hldi, 'fly'. But hldihi in:

hldihi-su-hldon || dze-hlda-hko-ge-hdzon, 195 'what hldihi one retires to, there is one's castle'

being antithetic to 'river' (rma) in the following line, should mean 'land'. On hlda-hko (da-ko) see supra, pp. 201, 245.

¹ Cf. Lo-lo dia-dia, above.

This ldi may be represented further by Mānyak mali/mli d'Ollone 38 dia, Muli (Njong) dja, Mélam meli ('country'), (Mo-so mdié, Lo-lo, mi-dyi, &c.?). In Tibetan there is a common word gżi/gżis, meaning 'ground', 'abode', 'estate', (sa-gżi, 'place', 'ground', 'locality', 'soil'), whence come common dialectical words for 'earth', Thōchū zip < gżi-po, Menia za-pi, d'Ollone 35 sa-że-diu < sa-gżi ('Tangut' sa-żu), 41 and 42 je-pu: though it cannot correspond to Nam hldi, which would, no doubt, be ldi or hdi, it would, as we have seen, properly represent the inevitable alternative form, hldyi.

A hldyi/hldyihi is to be found, in fact, in the text. By way of conjecture only, since the instances probably represent different words, we may venture as follows:

In:

hre-ge-rgyo-dze-hphu-hśig-hldvihi ||, 48

where rgyo recalls nothing, in its several recurrences, but Tib. rgyo, 'copulari', while hre has beside its very frequent signification 'is', 'being' (Tib. re) and that of 'hope' (Tib. re), also not infrequently the sense of Tib. re, 'each' (whence Hsi-hsia re, 'all'), res, 'times', 'turn', &c., whence re-hlad, 'retribution' (Il. 245, 247). Hphu (hpu) can mean 'male', and hsig always has the sense of Tib. hjig, bžig, gžig, 'destroy', 'decay', 'perish'. In this context hldyihi, no doubt a Verb, might well mean 'be assuaged', 'appeased', in which case it would correspond to Tib. ži, which has those meanings.

In connexion with the earthquake we find in l. 26 the phrase hldyeg-hldyi-hti-dze, where hti may mean 'darkness' (Tib. gti), as in l. 12.1 Hldyeg does not occur elsewhere; but, if hldyi should mean 'four', it could obviously denote only 'regions', 'quarters', and we should then have a good equivalent for the li(ldi)-lei, 'four quarters', frequently mentioned in a Buddhist Hsi-hsia text.2 The Tibetan for 'quarter' in this application is usually phyogs (Hsi-fan chuo, &c., Menia cho); but there is also a word gżogs, which might be akin to such a hldyeg.

In 1, 375 rbyi-hldyihi is unfortunately obscure: see p. 350.

4. hldyim: (hpuhi, hphuhi).

In one occurrence, namely in the phrase htshog-me-hldyim-rgyan, l. 89, hldyim clearly belongs to the Verb gdim/dim/hdim/

On hti = 'stop' see pp. 174, 309.

² Suvarņa-prabhāsa (in Wang Jinqru Shishiah Studies, ii, e.g. p. 16, lower coll. 5, 6).

ddyim, 'disappear' (p. 321 supra), occurring in the immediate context: hence it is a mere way of writing hldim. The same interpretation is applicable in:

hldyim-hste-hpuḥi-ge-rne-hdzam-re-hldan, 274

'their blowings ceased, the fiends (enemies) returned mild' where hpuhi = hphuhi, said of dogs in the next but one line (p. 285), and of the ass in l. 354, and the s in hste points to a form hldyims (Aorist).

A different hldyim must be seen in the above quoted:

hśań-hdzah-hldyim-hyań, 255

which has been translated (p. 327) 'though garbage-eating was sweet'. The rendering implies an equivalence of hldyim to Tib. 2im, 'sweet', 'well-tasting', which phonetically may now be considered justified. In the Tibetan manuscripts we read 'A flesh-eater's sharp knife gives sweetness (2im) at every cut'. But in the absence of further confirmation the matter remains conjectural: as regards hdzah see p. 334.

hldyan, hldyon, ldyan, hdyan, dyan; (°hro; °hto; rgon; rgyer)

In the case of the two remaining words, of which the former is exceedingly troublesome, we have at least the support of an antithesis between them. In ll. 384–7, at the close of a discrimination of certain parts of the terrain, we read:

hjo(hdzo)-chi-te-re-hlab-hñań-hyah-htah||hldyań-hro-hpehi|| hdzam-hbroń-hroń || hbań-hko-htar-cig-dze-hldyoń-hrohpehi||

Here, in company with phrases which have previously been found difficult, we find the hldyan-hro, 'hldyan country', exemplified (hpehi) in a certain way, the hldyon-hro, 'hldyon-country', in another way, which brings in the 'tame-yak gorge', already seen to imply the lower levels. Concerning the word hro(ro) in placenames see supra, p. 314. Hldyon probably has no other occurrence, ldyono in l. 318 being a doubtful reading.

There are some indications connecting bldyan with height:

hldyan-g-ri-gdod-re-mehi-hrah-gtan, 186

'[where] a hldyan mountain is prominent (Tib. dod), an eyepost should be set'

hldyan-hgoho-hdzin-re-mehi-hrah-hdab na, 369

'a hldyan place or gate (hgoho) being held, an eye-post is put' although hldyan might be not attribute of g-ri and hgoho, but

¹ For brim? Cf. hjib, brib, 'relish'.

subject to the Verbs gdod (the phrase g-ri-ydod would then, however, be difficult) and hdzin. In the verse, repeated in ll. 9, 19:

sta-re-hmo (l. 9 hmo-hno)-ge-sta-hri-hldyan

'where were (had been) the heavens (clouds?), there the mountains hldyan'

the signification 'high' or 'rose' becomes a certainty; and it is confirmed by the *hldi-hrkah-hldyah-dze*, 'on the earth steep high or rising', of l. 10, and then further by the repetition of the word as a Predicate in the antithetic verses of ll. 12–14.

An antithesis hldyan/hldyon, 'high'/'low', can find its reflection in Tibetan bžen, bžens, bžan, 'raise', 'erect', in comparison with żon, 'lower', żon-żon, 'deepened', 'excavated', 'hollow', gżons, ljons, 'valley', (lj not becoming lż), with which must be connected śan-śons, 'high and low', gśon, bśon, 'deep valley', 'ravine'. Bżens is used, for instance, to denote the raised partitions dividing fields; an analogous meaning will well suit:

hdyań-hto-htoń-ge-hgo-gtoń-mod, 210-11

'when the high (Tib. mtho) partition, or the partition boundary (Tib. tho), is surrendered, the gate or place is surrendered'.

The sense of 'rising' (from a seat, &c.), which Tib. bžeń conveys, may perhaps be recognized in:

hdzu-hdro-hphor-[re-]hchi-hdo-dyanna, 183, 353 (gzu, hdyan) 'the ass, set free to depart, started or rose (dyan) to go (hchi)' rgon-wa-mye[-]r[e]-rbyo-rgyer-hldyan ||, 365

'if there are no eggs (Tib. sgon, sgon-na, Mo-so gō, &c.), the rbyo rises abandoning (Tib. hgyer) it'

and the same is presumably the case in the hnu-glan-ldyan following in l. 366, and can also be harmonized with the rne-hkhyamhldyan of ll. 229, 236.

The reference to eggs in l. 365, however, yields a more definite conception in $hldya\dot{n}$, that of 'flying', which would bring it into connexion, either as a synonym or as a linguistic or stylistic equivalent of $hldi\dot{n}$, 'fly', which we have seen in l. 160 $hpu-myi-hldi\dot{n}$, 'the bird does not fly' (pp. 145–6, 320). In that case rbyo should be a synonym of hpu, 'bird', and this will suit

rbyo-g-yer-hnor[-re]-rgon-wa-śid ||, 366

'if the bird is foolish in his alertness [sc. unwatchful] (cf. stsah-hyer, swa-hmor, &c., pp. 276-8, and on hnor, 'foolish', pp. 224-5) the eggs perish'

and the further connexion of the *rbyo* with eggs in the proverb; rbyo-sñań-ge-sñań-na-rgoń-ru-ge-hru ||, 102-3 (cf. l. 82)

'if the heart of a rbyo is a heart, the horns (sc. ends) of an egg are horns'

the Tibetans speaking of the ends of an egg as 'horns'. The strangeness of the r-Prefix to bya, 'bird', is almost a conclusive proof of the correctness of the interpretations; for, as shown supra (p. 94), several Hsi-fan languages have the r-Prefix in this word (e.g. Munia rja, 'bird', rja-gu, 'egg' = Tib. bya, bya-sgon), and others also represent the final -o, perhaps a 'Diminutive' form = byehu. The difference between hpu and rbyo may be that between 'bird' and 'fowl', which occurs also elsewhere.

According to this the rbyo-po transmitter of the Nam text, whom we have conjectured (p. 156) to be some kind of Bon priest, will be a 'bird (or cock)-man', which is not improbable, because the sorcerer's cock is well known in the Hsi-fan area (see From Tonkin to India, by Prince Henri d'Orléans, pp. 200, 263). Rbyo, however, must have a second sense in order to account for the references in ll. 53, 56, 57, and an antithesis to hphon, 'poor' (?) in 53, and to rgu, 'thief', in l. 57 suggests that it may mean 'rich', 'riches', so that in this word again, we have a parable.

The signification 'fly' suits also the passage (ll. 12–15), where in the cataclysm the woods, mountains, fields, &c., soar (hldyan) through the sky. Moreover, it seems to afford a key to the phrase hldyan-hpu-hbri-re several times attached to the Mehi-hklu-hcah, whom we have supposed to have been originally an owl (pp. 134, 255). It will mean either 'flying-bird (pu) -destroying' or 'flying males and females (hbri) or 'flying bird-males being weak females': see p. 217).

The word hldyan remains, however, the most puzzling in the whole text, and perhaps has several different senses. The obscure expression hldyan-hkan has been mentioned supra (p. 317). In regard to hldyan-hyu (ll. 122, 369, 372, 387) we can only mention the possibility that it means 'high country' (cf. the Tibetan yul-mtho = Tibet) and that it is virtually a Proper Name, being a designation of the land of the Ch'iang tribes, and that this is the explanation of the racial term, in Tibetan Hjan, appearing in the name of the Tang-hsiang country and in the dynastic name, Lyang of the T'ang-chang kingdom therein.

2. Z

Nam z= Tib. z has been recognized in hzah, 'wife' (p. 240), hzu, gzu, 'ass' (p. 251–2), bzod, 'bear' (p. 166). But the great rarity of z in Nam words and the fact that in Tibetan it is not very common and frequently alternates with dz (e.g. in hdzin/zin, gzuns, hdzur/zur, hdzar/bzar/gzar, hdzag/gzags/zags/gzag/zag) suggests that some equivalents of Nam words with dz may be found in Tibetan forms with z. We may here overlook the probability that Tibetan z was originally derived from dz under the same conditions as z from z, i.e. when preceded by z0 or z1 (supra, pp. 325–6).

Tibetan dz is also frequently confused with j, to such an extent indeed that Sanskrit j is normally in the texts represented by dz (as are c and ch by ts and tsh). The substitution, very easy in the script, is perhaps not merely orthographical: being very widespread and not recent, it may point to an undiscriminated 'phoneme' or to dialectical variation. It cannot have been derived from Kashmir, the very country where the signs for ts, tsh, dz, were invented for the purpose of the discrimination.

1. gdzu, hdzu, gzu, hzu, hju, 'ass'.

This has been discussed supra (pp. 251-2, Tib. gzu-lum).

hdzah, hjah, gzo, hdzo, hjo = Tib. za, bzah, bzas, zos, bzos, 'eat', 'food', zan, gzan, 'food', 'eat': (hkhen).

bos-smyi-hldog-dze-hrah-ldah-ge-hdzah ||, 42-3

'under a master who is a perverse person, the people of the place are eaten [sc. by him] (or possibly "enemies there are friends", p. 313)'

hban-hldah-hne-ge-hkehu-me-hdzah ||, 171 'good authorities eat the fire of profit (p. 316)'

(In l. 172 we find 'milk out the fire of speech'). Cf. hśan-hdzah-hldyim-hyan, l. 255, 'though garbage-feeding is sweet' (supra, p. 327, 331).

The form hjah appears in:

hjah-htah-hkhen-yan-swa-tseg-tseg ||, 92-3

'though familiar with (Tib. mkhyen), or quick at (Tib. skyen), eating, the teeth (Tib. so) are checked, checked'.

On tseg see supra, p. 294. But the sense here might be 'chatter' (onomatopoeic): cf. Tib. tseg-tseg-byed, 'rustle' (like dry leaves, &c.).

gzo in:

hbos-hnom-hsah-gtsan-hrgu-ma-gzo ||, 164-5

'crops of land enjoyed by the master thieves do (shall? see p. 199) not eat'.

On hrgu see p. 233.

The meaning 'eat' is suggested, by the above-cited hkehu-mehdzah, for hjo, hdzo, in:

rne-hpo-hldo-ge-hkehu-prom-hjo-na, 177

hrne-hpo-hne-ge-hkohu-prom-hdzoho ||, 361-2

'enemy (fiend) braves eat the profit (speech, p. 316)-making'.

 hjoho = Tib. bzo, 'manufacture', 'trade', 'craft', 'make', bzo, zo, 'figure', 'fashion', 'art', thag-bzo, 'rope-making'.

g-rah-hyos-htag-ge-hjoho ||, 34

'the earthquake acted as a mill' (supra, p. 275).

 hdze = Tib. ze, zehu, 'hump', 'cushion', gzed, 'carry', mjed, 'convey', 'bear', perhaps related to hdzed, 'hold out' and bzod, 'endure', 'forgive': (hyañ; spyi; hkab).

hyan-so-hdze-tse-hldi-ma-hrtah ||, 63

'when the load is too big (Tib. yans?), the horse does not fly (gallop)'

spyi-hdze-ge-hkab |||, 110

'the chief (Tib. spyi-bo) burden [sc. responsibility] is the family (Tib. khab)'.

5. hdzehu = Tib. gze-re, 'weak', 'reduced', bze, bze-re, 'pain' (endurance?), zed, 'damaged', 'injured'?

hdzehu-rje-hbro-re-hdzohu-hto-hrun, 138

'when a weak chief flees, one must be a man (hdzohu, pp. 218).

 hdzon = Tib. zon, gzon 'take care', 'keep watch over', e.g. the tongue or feet (cf. dgra-zon, 'military guard-post') (sto, the-the).

sto-the-the-re-stor-htah-hdzon, 336-7

'the rope being pulled, pulled (Tib. the-re-then, "pull straight", hthen, "pull (a rope, &c.)"), running away is guarded against'.

7. sla = Tib. zla, 'friend'.

hldan-hkran-hwe-dze-hldan-slah-hkehe, 125

'doing uprightness, one gains upright (or helping) friends' (see p. 289)

slo, slos = Tib. zlo, 'summon', 'call', zlos, 'a charm', zla-ba, bzla-ba, bzlas?¹ (hsus, gsus).

rta-hgam-hphar-re-hsus-slo-glo, 93 rta-hgam-hphar-[re-]gsus-slo-stah, 99

'the horse being gone to the hgam, intending to call (or expecting) a party to receive him. . . . (those called (or who came forth) to receive him)'.

Hsus/gsus, Aorist of bsu, 'advance to meet a visitor', a common usage in Tibet and Central Asia. It will be noted that slo-stah = slos-ta, as in analogous cases.

slug, l. 47, is uncertain,² as also is hdam-sleg, ll. 346, 351. slug,
 1. 359 = slog, ll. 174, 384 = Tib. zlog, bzlog, 'turn back', 'repel', 'divert', bzlog, 'contrary', slog, 'turn', 'invert', 'return' (g-yul-bzlog, 'repel in battle', 'a victorious battle').

hnu-glan-slog, 174, 359 (slug), 'turned back the young oxen'. hrsehi-hpag-slog-dze-hrne-hrom-ge-hti-na-hrne-ge-hrlomhi|:|, 384-5

'the peaks (hrsehi also 1. 208, = se, hse, Tib. rtse) having sunk down, in the darkness of the fiends' gloomy (cavity) the fiends hanker (or are conceited, hrlom = Tib. rlom)'.

3. W

The w, which in the Tibetan alphabet has existed from the first, has not been in very frequent use. Words commencing with it are few, the best known being wa, 'fox'; and, although, as a subscript letter, the sign is allowed to follow as many as sixteen of the other consonants, the words exhibiting that feature are not very numerous, some of them, e.g. śwa/śa, 'stag', śwa/śa, 'blood', showing alternative forms, and others being rather out-of-the-way terms. But some are fairly familiar, e.g. żwa, 'cap', grwa, 'school', phywa, 'lot', rtswa, zwa, 'nettle', 'grass', khwa, 'raven', lwa, 'blanket'—many of these, again, being often written without the w.

Nam, like Hsi-hsia, presents a relatively large percentage of w's, both initial (if we disregard the Prefix h) and subscript. It has, moreover, forms (g-wah, g-we, &c.) with Prefix g- written

2 e.g. śa, phya, ri-dags in the Tibetan Manuscripts.

¹ But perhaps slo may rather be = Hsi-hsia sloh = 'come forth' (Nevsky, no. 103).

² But being connected with h\u00e4ed (see p. 251) it may be related to Tib. ldug/blug/zlug/bzlug, 'pour', 'cast metal', &c.

separately, parallel to forms $(g ext{-}ri, \&c.)$ from r-roots and y-roots $(g ext{-}yah, \&c.)$: see p. 168. When h is prefixed $(hgwah = g ext{-}wah = hwa)$, the subscript form is used: properly the h should not be prefixed to g, with which it commonly alternates; there do not seem to be parallel cases with y- and r-.

- A. Initial w- in Nam, descended from b-, may be seen in:
- we, hwe, hwehe, wehi, hwehi, g-we, g-wehe, g-wehi = Tib. byed, 'do', 'make' = Hsi-hsia we.

In the Tibetan byed the y may have been originally a phonetic accretion, as in mye, 'fire', &c., in the old orthography: this is suggested by the form bas, assumed by the Aorist byas, when used in the sense of 'done with', 'enough of that'.

It is not necessary to exemplify this word, which in cases like hldan-hkran-hwe, 'doing uprightness', hrah-hwehi-hrtah, 'roommaking horse', has been frequently mentioned. On the hi in hwehi, as being syntactical, see pp. 190-2.

 hwas, hwa(s)-ste = Tib. bas, 'done for', 'done with', wa, hwa, hwah, g-wah, hgwa; 'bzer, 'hrho; rkwa (g-ron; hkah; gla; rko; glog).

In:

gdzu-hbyi-hnań-re-hmań-hri-hwas ||, 308

'if "little tiger" (the ass) is in it, the great mountain is done for'

the phrase hman-hri-hwas is proved to have the meaning here given by hman-sta-mehi, 'greatness is not there' of l. 311, followed by:

gdzu-hbyi-hnan-re-hri-stah-mehi

'if "little tiger" is in it, the mountain is not there'

and further repetitions of hri(g-rihi, &c.)-sta-mehi. Hence it is clear that hwas = Tib. bas.

The same hwas, slightly disguised, is seen in the hwa-ste(= hwas-te) of:

hde-me-htah-g-ron-hyed-ge-ta-hwa-ste-htah ||, 71-2

'fires of prosperity, with cooling (Tib. gran?), or dying (Tib. gron?), emissions, are done for'

an interpretation confirmed by:

hwa-ste-hge-dze-hla-hram-hte ||, 73

'with exhausted good fortune the moon consorts'

¹ See pp. 269, 273.

repeated (with lah for hla) in Il. 75-6, where it is preceded by:

hwa-ste-hgehe-dze-dgu-htor-hbyi

'in exhausted good fortune the great heat diminishes'.

This being so, it is probable that the frequently recurring wa/hwa/hwah is the old Present stem of the same Verb; and, since these seem to incline to the signification of forcible action, it is also possible that Tib. hbah, 'seizure', 'distraint (liability to)' hbah-hgan (gan), 'contractual obligation', is of the same origin: but see p. 346. A more ordinary notion of 'doing', 'making', may be seen in:

gsom-wa-hyo, 178-9, 'thought-making fluctuates'

hmu-wa-rho, 309, 'able to make cold'

hwad-hwah-rno, 335, 'able to keep watch'

hkya-wa(hwa)-ñe(hñe), 162, 215, 339, 'harming work upon crops'

hdrab-hwa-hran, 162, 172, 'delighting in making snatchings'.

A more definite note of action is seen in:

hbri-re-hrdyam-re-hkhah-hldah-hnaghi

hdzohu-ro-hldi-re-hjohu || hwa-hkah, 137

'all females being restrained (?), let the speakers give voice'; 'this being a place for males (p. 218), it is for males to act and speak'

where hwa-hkah perhaps corresponds to such phrases in Tibetan as hgro-kha, 'time of going' (p. 314).

Agricultural 'work' is indicated in:

gsah-rkah-gla[-]r[e]-hwah-hrog-hldon

hwah-hrog-rno-ge-hkeg-rko-hwad, 333-4

'If difficult or steep (rkah, see p. 329) land is hired, helpers in the work desert;

With capable helpers in the work the hkeg (checked?) hoe (rko) is alert'

in which passage the use of gla, 'wages', as a Verb 'hire', is paralleled by a Central-Asian document (Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 273. A. 3). The mixed expression hwah-glah-hrśań-hgam, Il. 228-9 will also contain the notion of 'wage of work'; while hwah-hrah, l. 353, may be merely 'place (or room) for action'. Similarly in:

po-rbom-hnor-[re-]hldog-g-yah-to-dze-hwa-ne-hphe, 317

'If the big man is a fool, then, becoming recalcitrant, good work (hgwa-nehu, l. 41) is weak (?) '1

htsah-hdzań-hyah-ge-hwah-ne-hbrah ||

smyi-glog-g-yah-ge || hwah-hrho-hjam-hma, 268-9

'With a wise supervisor in front, good work flourishes':

'With a lightning man in front, the work-capable are pleased (agreeable?)' cf. hldohu-hjam-rho, p. 322,

to which sentiment an interesting analogy may be seen in a passage of one of the Tibetan manuscripts:

'Work done by a believer in work: is like lightning (glog) even at night'.

But agriculture reappears in:

hwah-hldanra-htsanra-na-hwa-rgya-hrko-hrkabs, 270-1

'Work in woodland or cornland (?),2 work plain hoe'

Possibly the notion of 'forcible action' or 'constraint' is to be recognized in:

hśi-hwa-hko, 123, 'death-action (= death) is hko (supreme? sole?)'.

As hwah, g-wah, hwa, hgwah, the word with this signification appears repeatedly in the long passage (ll. 223 sqq.) beginning:

htor-hbroń-hrpag-re-hwah-hrśań-hlamhi

g-wah-hrśań-hnar-[re-]hrkwa-hdzam-htronhi

'The great yak to be brought low, a journey of hostile action: Hostile action accomplished, mild command to be led in'.

Here the word hrśan, which has occurred with hswa, 'surveillance' (l. 321), and in ll. 225, 226 with lad, as equivalent to hśan-hlad, ll. 226-7, should mean 'hostility' or 'hate'. Hrkwa, since in l. 122 we read hrta-rkwa-hdzam, 'the horse's rule (?) was mild', must have a sense akin to that of 'rule', 'command': see infra, pp. 343-4.

Another instance of the same sense may be seen in:

hwah-[h]t[i]b-bžer ||, 18-19, 'violence brings down (Tib. rtib, "break or pull down" rdib, "crumble" (of a house, &c.), ltib, "fall through") the fort'

where, however, the preceding word hbar is not clear. With hwah the word bèer, not given in the Tibetan dictionaries, but frequent

2 Cf. gsah-re-htsah-re, 'lands and crops', p. 281,

¹ Hphe, perhaps identical with the pheh of the Berlin fragment (l. 3), is of uncertain meaning, though clearly antithetical to hbrah. Can it be a form of hphen (cf. hdre/hdren, &c.), 'throw away', and so with hphan/phans, 'loss', phons/hphons, 'poor', &c.?

in seventh-to-ninth century personal names and occurring in the Tibetan manuscript Chronicle as designation of some war-structure which was 'built' (dgra-bèer-brtsigs), is conjoined again in the expression hwa-bèer, I. 231, of the Nam text: since it is first hśid, 'high', and then hrpag, 'brought low', it is evidently here, also, a building, like hkhar, hbam, hkan, and other objects to which these terms are applied. Thus it seems certain that hwa-bèer means 'bèer of power or government or control'. The rarity of è in Nam suggests that it is a loan-word from Tibetan, which itself may have acquired it by borrowing. In l. 177 we hkohu-prom-bèer.

The above include all the occurrences of wa, hwah, hgwah, &c., except hwi-wa (hwa), Il. 201, 273, to be noted infra (p. 341), hyah-

wa-hkan, l. 190, which all belong elsewhere.

The employment of wa with Verbs, as in gsom-wa, 'thought-making', 'si-hwa, 'death-making (or power)', hwad-hwah-rho, 'able to keep watch', and at the same time with Nouns or Adjectives (hkya, hmu) may throw light upon the origin of the Tibetan Verb- and Noun-suffix ba (pa).

- hwam, 'mansion', 'dwelling' = Tib. bam/bams/boms; (see pp. 225, 243).
- hwag = Tib. hbag, 'be defiled':

hrgyeb-hkruhu-hbro-re-g-yah-hpan-hwag, 323-4 'when the rear has a filth-taste (malodour?), the lap in front is defiled'.

hwad = Tib. hbad, 'watch', 'be alert, earnest', hbod, 'call', 'call to', 'invite'.

mye-hyan-hwad, 6, 'fire also is awake'

hsehe-hwad-hwad, 14, 'the peaks nodded, nodded' (?)

tho-rgyam-ge-hwad, 109, 'watching [at] the boundary-slabs' rgyed-hdre-hte-ge-hcog-hdo-dze-hwad, 87–8, 'the disunioninducers keep watch on union'

hri-hci-hwadhi, 300-1, 'watch those coming to (or moving on) the mountain'

hwad-hldan-kran, 268, 'uprightness keeps watch', hkeg-rko-hwad, 334, 'the stopped hoe wakes up'? hwad-hwah-rno, 335, 'able to keep watch'.

Hbod may have a related sense in:

hmor-hso-hbod-ge, 313.

The text contains no instance of wo or wu, while bbo is frequent,

and hbu and hbog also occur; hence before o and u the change of b to w may not have taken place in Nam itself.

hwar = Tib. hbar, 'burn': (hdag).

hro-ta-śodtsa-re-hwar-ta-rgven(n)i, 198

'the corpses being laid low (?), burning is difficult'.

In 1. 28, where an earthquake is in question, hwar probably will have the same sense, though an apparent imperfection in the text renders it uncertain whether hdag-hpoho, which might be = Tib. mdag, 'embers', is really the subject of the Verb. For other reasons hran-war-hpan-re, 1, 101, hran-hwar-rders-hdi-na, 1, 107, cha-ru-hwars (perhaps Aorist) -ge, 1. 203, must likewise be left obscure.

7. hwi-hwa (wa) = Tib. byi-ba, 'mouse', 'rat':

klag-hrwad-hdzur-[re-]hwi-hwehi-htsag, 173

'if the harsh-voiced lammergeyer (or eagle) is away, the mice or rats gather' (p. 257)

hso-hldah-hgor-re-hwi-wa-rman, 201,

'if the living delay, mice or rats are the tomb'

hwi-hwa-se-kvah-hkvan-hdzam-re-hldan | , 273-4

'to their mice-injured crops the serfs returned tame'

(cf. the gśan-hrah-hton-kya, 'enemy-abandoned crops' of the preceding verse).

hwyir = Tib. hbyer, 'escape': (hśag):

hňo-sto-ge-háag-dze-rňe-hwe-ge-hwyir | , 85

'while friends talk (Tib. śags), enmity-doers escape'.

9. hwen = Tib. dben, 'solitary' (?):

hlab-ta-hwen, 159, 'speaking is empty ()'.

A Hsi-hsia wen is given as meaning 'bad' (Laufer, No. 17).

10. hwan = Tib. dban, 'power', &c. (or Chinese wang?)

hldan-rgye-hdor-re-hwan-ta-hnen, 209-10

'After throwing away the big stick (? strong support, hldan?), ruling is a risk'

ram (nam ?)-ge-hwan || re-klu-ge-hwan ||, 5

'... being in authority, the blind were in authority'.

11. weihi/hweihi, 'cream' (p. 251)?

In regard to alternation of w(hw) and b(hb) see p. 346.

B. Post-consonantal w: Here a distinction should be made according as the consonant seems, from the point of view of actual Nam or Tibetan morphology, to be (a) not a Prefix, or (b) a Prefix. The Prefix having been felt as a separable element, the following sound might, or might not, have been exempted from being influenced by it.

- (a) the consonant not a Prefix.
- swa = Tib. so/swa, 'watch', 'guard', &c.: See supra, pp. 276-7.
- swa/hswa/hswah/swah = Tib. so, 'tooth': See p. 334.
- hswar/hsor = Tib. sor, 'finger' (htsam; bzod).
 hswar-hldu-sto(= hldus-to)-dze, 26, 'in a closing of the fingers [sc. a moment]'.

The form hsor in:

gśi-brom-hnu-ge-hsor-htsam-bzod, 72

'those whose strength is cut away by death support [only] as much as a finger'

may be a Tibetanism, since the htsam (Tib. tsam) and bzod also are απαξ εlρημένα: <math>brom = Tib. hgrum, 'pinch or nip off', see pp. 366–7.

sweḥe = Tib. sbe, 'wrestle'?; but we should expect rbe.

g-wah-hram-myer-re-hldag-nag-swehe, 129-30

'united action (power?) being non-existent, the black-back contended (raised contention?)'

Tib. sbed, 'hide', is perhaps less apposite.

thwan = Tib. than, 'value', 'measure' (dwan, rwan).

The most certain instance, since hban-thwan must be = Tib. dban-than, 'might', 'luck', 'destiny', is:

hbar-hban-thwan-byin ||, 97, 'in the middle (= secondly) authority declines' (echoed in hbar-thwan, 1, 98).

Also in:

gnaḥ-ma-dwaṅ-dze-ḥkhab-rgye-ge-ḥthwaṅ ||, 280 'over places not brilliant (? dwaṅs = dwaṅ ll. 364-5, rwaṅ l. 178) the great houses have authority'.

 twan = Tib. thon, 'ram'? (mnar; nehe). twan-mag-hnor, 48, 'in a fight of rams'

g-rub-hgoho-hdag-ci-twan-mnar-hsogna ||, 261-2

'those who had their doors rushed (hrub, pp. 221, 343) divided the rams under control (miar Locative of miah?)' twan-hdzam-nehe, 276, 'the rams tamely—' (The next two verses refer to the dogs and goats: nehe is conceivably onomatopoeic, meaning 'bleat').

hgweg-hwehe = Tib. sgeg-byed, 'charmer' [sc. 'wife'] or hgeg-bye, 'husband'?
 hgweg-hwehe-hphah-hphah-dze-hthar-phyan-ge-hrub||,348-9
 On hphah-hphah, 'laugh', see p. 248, n. 3.

8. ħkhwi-ħtsa = 'elder', 'old'? = Hsi-hsia dwi, dwiħ, wi (Nevsky, No. 134), Jyā-run kā-woi, Menia khwa-khwa? (gdes). hkhwi-htsa-hyog-hdag-ci-hran-hdom-gdes ||, 259-60 'elders with staves (Tib. yog-po) fixed (Hsi-hsia gdeħ/ħdeħ, &c., 'fix", ''determine", Nevsky, No. 25) their decisions'.
(The previous verse speaks of the 'wise' (śe) and 'brave' (ħpaħ).

(The previous verse speaks of the 'wise' (se) and 'brave' (hpah), and the two following verses of 'children' (hsas).)

 rwa/hrwa = Tib. rwa, 'horn', ef. ru, 'horn' (hkar; hya; hpog; hdah; sbyim).

hrin-rwa-hkar-re-hñan-hya-htsag ||, 44-5 'the long-horn [sc. ram] being penned, the female sheep come together'

Here hkar, as in Il. 151, 204, is connected with Tib. skar/sgar/dgar, &c., 'pen cattle, &c.', 'set apart', 'make an encampment': hya, 'sheep', see supra, p. 94: hñan = Chinese niang, 'woman'.

sbyim-hce-rgye-dze-hrwa-hdah-hpog ||, 59

'on a sbyim (? "target", Tib. hgyim, "circumference") which is large the horn [sc. bow, Tib. rwa-gżu] plants the arrow'

(Ḥdaḥ = Tib. mdaḥ, 'arrow', as in 1. 58, pp. 300-1: hpog = Tib. hphog (in manuscript also pog), 'hit' (with an arrow, &c.).)

hrkwa/rkwa = Tib. bkah, 'command' (rkah).

hrta-rkwa-hdzam, 122, 'the horse's rule was mild', (cf. Tib. bkah-drin, 'kind', 'kindness')

g-wah-hrśań-hnar[-]r[e]-hrkwa-hdzam-htronhi, 224

'hostile force having been accomplished, mild rule is to be brought in'.

This case raises a question of some difficulty; for in l. 84:

hrje-smyi-rmad-ge-hmo-rkah-lda-dze

'under chiefs who are inferior men, subject to a woman's commands'

we have rkah equivalent to Tib. bkah. Can rkwa represent the same? In favour of a rkwa = Tib. bkah we may call attention to the several examples of the pre-consonantal Prefixes b, d, and m being represented in modern Amdoan by post-consonantal u: such are hual = dpal, hue = dpe, kuar-tsal = bkah-hstsal, chuam = byams, kuak = bkaq, kuam = mkhan, huon = dpon (Rockhill, The Land of the Lamas, pp. 363-6). Again, it may be doubted whether there are in the Nam text any other examples of the r-Prefix corresponding to the b-Prefix in Tibetan, unless rkom/hrkom, Il. 157, 285, &c., is such (it might possibly be for dkum, cf. dgum).

The difficulty is, however, unsubstantial. The word bkah declares itself by its form to be a Deverbal Derivative, presumably from a Verb hkhah, connected with kha, 'mouth', 'speech', &c. Accordingly, it may have taken in Nam the r-Prefix; in Tibetan it is, in fact, found with this Prefix in the Aorist form brkas. Hence it is quite possible that the Nam may have had both a rkah and a brkah; and the latter, if it became rkwa, may have survived by the side of the former, possibly with a slightly different sense, 'rule' instead of 'command'.

11. hrwań = Tib. brań, 'dwelling-place' (hkań-hkań):

hnor-hlah-hwam-háid-dze-hrwan-hkan-hkan ||, 11 'on the estates, in the high mansions or settlements, the dwelling-places were in confusion (?)'

Hkan-hkan (onomatopoeic?) recurs in I. 184.

The etymology of Tib. $bra\hat{n}$ being unknown, the equation is uncertain (from $brwa\hat{n}$?). That Nam brw should be descended from mere br does not seem possible in view of the many instances of br = Tib. br. On $rwa\hat{n}/dwa\hat{n}$ see p. 342.

The remaining words kwa-kwa, l. 363, hkwan (? reading), l. 212, hkwehe, l. 131, hdwa, l. 148, pwan, ll. 361, 362, tswehu, l. 196, htswe, l. 6, dzwe, l. 367, hdzwe, ll. 36, 39, swan (= Tib. son?), ll. 337, 340, 341, swad, ll. 203, 390, are of unascertained meaning. See, however, the Vocabulary.

Concerning tswehu, htswe, hdzwe, see p. 269. Kwa-ka occurs in Mānyak with the meaning 'night', khwa-khwa in Menia = 'old'. As a mere possibility it may be mentioned that pwan, which in the text is associated with sna, a known variant of Tib. gna, 'surety', 'witness', may itself be = Tib. dpan, which has the same significations.

- (b) The consonant a Prefix:
- rwye (l. 50 rbye)¹ = Tib. dbye (a) 'extent', (β) 'divided':
 - (a) See p. 267.
 - (β) rta-htsog-hram-ge-htaḥ-rwye-htaḥ ||, 90-1 'the horse's friendships are divided, broken'.

On htah in rwye-htah see p. 267.

 hrwad = Tib. rbad (a) 'harsh voice', (b) 'a kind of eagle': Concerning:

hrwad-hbań-prom-yań-hkohu-me-hdrab-na || klag-hrwad-hdzur-[re-]-hwi-hwehi-htsag, 172–3, see p. 257. hgru-ma-hkom-re-hrwad-hmoń-hldah, 32–3

Here a doubt as to reading (hman?) creates some uncertainty: otherwise the meaning would be 'harsh voices or the harsh-voiced clamour multiplied' or 'was confused' (p. 309).

3. rwe, rwer, hrwehi: (rgor; hbar; hmo-cha).

That this word means substantially 'end' is clear in:

rgor-hyos-hbom-byin-hbar-hban-thwan-byin ||

rwer-hmo-hchah-byin-htsog-hram-myin

rgor-hyos-hbar-thwan-hkhor-kyan-rwehi-re-hmo-cha-byi-naphyi-hse-myi, 96-8

'At the door (rgor) — sinks; in the middle (hbar, Tib. bar) luck or authority sinks;

At the end (rwer) the women's part (hchah/cha) sinks: friendship is a name:

At the door —, in the middle power, retinue also being ended (rwehi),

The women's part sinking, injury from outside is not (the cause: it is disunion)'.

It appears therefore that rwe, in itself meaning 'end', gives rise to a Verb meaning 'puts an end to'. The etymology is not apparent; but the same signification may be seen in:

hldań-krań-hrwehi ||, 113, 'uprightness is at an end' hldań-rmań-hrwehi ||, 27, 'the wooden tombs were destroyed' and possibly in hrań-hrah-hrwehi, ll. 21-2; in hrwehi-gtsu-ge-hrnas, l. 214, the last word is of uncertain reading (= brñas, 'despised'?).

¹ Hbys in 1, 223, perhaps also in 1, 131, seems to mean 'is divided' (Intransitive Verb = Tib. hbys).

4. g-we, g-wehi, g-wehe:

These, being formed by aid of the living Prefix g to the Verb we (p. 337), require no discussion.

On g-wah = hwah, see p. 339.

5. rwyin in:

hnah-hran-ge-rwyin ||, 33

is of uncertain meaning: perhaps connected with hbyin, hbyin, 'sink', 'grow faint'.

A question as to the limits of fluctuation between w and b after Prefixes is raised by the certain case of rwye/rbye.

No notice need be taken of inconsistencies as between different words; in a language using Prefixes the conditions of occurrence of the same initial consonant in two different roots may be entirely different; it is therefore not at all disconcerting to find that in Nam hwar = Tib. hbar always has w, while hbar = Tib. bar has b. In the spelling of particular words the Nam text seems to be noticeably consistent in this respect; besides the above-mentioned rwye/rbye the only cases calling for examination are those of hbah and hbah.

Hbah: in the phrase hro-hbehi-hbah, 'wolf oppressing sheep', the word hbah, which can hardly fail to be = Tib. hbah, 'distraint', has everywhere b. This fact casts doubt upon the suggested (p. 338) connexion between that word and the Verb we, 'do', along with hwa, 'action', 'power'.

Hban: This, which is, beyond doubt, the regular equivalent in the Nam text of Tib. dban, 'power', has beside it a form hwan with analogous signification: perhaps its meaning is restricted to that of 'rule', 'government', and it has been suggested supra, p. 341, that it is really = Chinese wang.

Post-consonantal w, as both present and absent in rkwa/rkah, has been discussed supra (pp. 343-4), where the possibility of a special explanation has been considered. But, furthermore, the thwan found (p. 342) to be equivalent to Tib. than, 'value', 'measure', can hardly be different from the hthan of hldi-hthan, Il. 132, 133, 'of this measure', or the repeated hyah (g-yah)-hthan, Il. 286-8, 'in the ascendant', 'superior', from the corresponding hthan of Il. 289, 290, or the hyah-htan of Il. 315, 318. It does not seem possible to bring in Tib. than, (1) 'clear', 'serene', (2) 'tail', (3) 'enduring',

¹ The word hban/ban may have other senses also, one of which may be (e.g. in Il. 67, 249-51, 373, 386, 390) that of Tib. hbans, 'a subject'.

'strong', 'tight'. It is, therefore, likely that thwan is the original form of which the w, lost in Tibetan, was occasionally preserved in Nam.

Hthan, 'plain', 'steppe', = Tib. than, is never, in its frequent occurrences, spelled with the w.

4. r-Prefix; r-final

r-Prefix:

A complete distinction between Prefix and not-Prefix is not feasible. For, on the one hand, it is impossible to say what groups of initial consonants were existent or frequent in early periods of Tibeto-Burman, and, on the other hand, forms originally containing Prefixes may attain in course of time the value of roots, and with different Prefixes different secondary roots could develop from one original; and each such development may have had a different date and local range. The least unreliable indications of a Prefix still felt to be such are (a) variation, including that between presence and absence, of Prefix, and (b) analogy of similar cases. Of course, where the variation is in accordance with a grammatical system or the Prefix discharges a function, there is no doubt: thus, when blaû(s) and glan alternate in a certain way, we may be sure that their connexion with the original len is not yet extinct.

In comparing Nam words having apparent Prefixes with Tibetan equivalents we have to reckon with variation on both sides: as regards Tibetan, even the dictionary attests an amount and range of variation of which the common orthography affords no conception: the double Prefix br- often, for example, alternates with bs-; and in the old manuscripts from Central Asia there are many more abnormalities, both orthographical and morphological. Hence we can never say that a Nam form containing a particular Prefix was not with that Prefix existent in Tibetan: we can say only that it has not been found. Subject to this proviso, the factual correspondence and divergences in respect of the r-Prefix may be classified as follows:

r- = Tib. r-:

rko/hrko = Tib. rko, 'dig', &c.
hrgah, hrgan = Tib. rga, rgan, 'old', 'grow old'.
rgu/hrgu = Tib. rku (rkun, lku, rgu, &c.), 'steal', 'thief'.
hrgod = Tib. rgod, 'wild'.
rgya/rgyah/hrgyah = Tib. rgya, 'plane surface'.

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rgyag = Tib. rgyag, 'form', 'found', 'put', &c.
  rgyan/hrgyans = Tib. rgyan, 'extent', 'extensive', 'far',
     'hasten'.
  hrgyu = Tib. rgyu, 'material'.
  rgyeb/hrgyeb, rgyebs = Tib. rgyab, 'back', 'throw back', &c.
  rgyo/hrgyo/rgyoho/rgyon/rgyohon = Tib. rgyo/rgyon, 'copu-
     lari'.
  rham/hrham = Tib. rham, 'threat', 'alarm'.
  hrhu = Tib. rhu, 'pain'.
  rne/hrne/hrnehe = Tib, rne, 'fiend', 'enemy'.
  rho/hrho/hrhoho = Tib. rho, 'able', 'power'.
  rje/hrje/rdze = Tib. rje, 'chief', 'king'.
  rjes = Tib. rjes, 'trace', 'aftermark'.
  rta(h), hrtah = Tib, rta, 'horse'.
  rto/hrto = Tib. rdo, 'stone'.
  hrdag = Tib. rdeg, rdegs, 'smite', 'thrust'.
  rma = Tib. rma, 'wound'.
  rma = Tib. rma, 'ask' (l. 47 ?).
  rman = Tib. rman, (a) 'tomb', (b) 'dream', 'imagine'.
  hrmoho ('shake'? l. 18), rmon ('dream', 'imagine'? l. 349) =
    Tib. rman, 'dream', 'imagine', rmon, 'be dazed, dizzy'?
  rtsig/hrtsig = Tib, rtsig, 'carpenter'.
  rdzogs = Tib. rdzogs, 'completed'.
  hrdzon(hdzon) = Tib. rdzon(hdzon), 'castle'.
  hrwad = Tib. rbad, 'harsh-voiced', 'eagle'.
  hrlom/glom = Tib. rlom, 'conceit', 'covet'.
  rse/hrse, se = Tib. rtse/se, 'summit', 'roof'.
r = \text{Tib. } r \text{ or } d:
  rgad (l. 113) = Tib. gad/dgod/rgod, 'laugh' (?)
r = \text{Tib. } r \text{ or } s:
  rkah/hrkwa = Tib. bkah, brkas, bskas, 'command'.
  rgo = Tib. rgo/brgo/sgo, 'door', 'gate'.
  r\tilde{n}i/s\tilde{n}i = \text{Tib. } r\tilde{n}i/s\tilde{n}i, \text{ 'snare', 'noose'}.
  rke = Tib. rke/ske, 'lean'.
r = Tib. s (cf. 'Tangut' (rta-)rga, 'saddle', rkhin, 'heart', =
    s\tilde{n}i\dot{n}, Amdo rduk = sdug, &c.):
  hrkas = Tib. skas, 'ladder', 'staircase'.
  rgam = Tib. sgam, 'deep'.
  rgam/hrgam = Tib. sgam, 'take into company',
  rgon/hrgon = Tib. sgon-wa, 'egg'.
  hrgom = Tib. bsgoms, 'passed over'.
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rdan /hrdan = Tib. sdan, 'anger', 'enmity'.

hrdam = Tib. sdam, 'bind', 'subdue'.

rde/hrde/rdehe = Tib. sde, 'class', 'troop'.

rdo/hrdo = Tib. sdo, 'venture'.

hrpod (l. 250) = Tib. spod, 'vow'?

rbo/hrbo, rbom/hrbom = Tib. sbo, sbom, 'swell', 'grow big'. rmo (l. 250) = Tib. smon, 'aspiration', 'vow'?

r = Tib. s or d:

rpehi/hrpehi (p. 323) = Tib. dpe, 'example', spe (p. 356, hpehi).

rmah, hmah = Tib. ma, sma, dmah, 'low'.

rmad (but? smad), hmad = Tib. smad, (dmad), 'low', 'make low', &c.

r = Tib. s or d or r:

rme = Tib. rme/dme/sme, 'mark', 'blemish', 'spot'.

r = Tib. d (cf. 'Tangut' rgiu, '9', Amdo rka = dkaḥ, rnyö = dhos, &c., Nam rwah, dwah, p. 344).

rkah/hrkah = Tib. dkah, 'steep', 'difficult'.

hrgah = Tib. dgah, 'delight'.

hrge/hrgehe, hrgehi-sto (cf. hge, hgehe) = Tib. dge, dges, 'happiness', &c., 'happy', &c.

rgon = Tib. dgon, 'wilderness'.

rbye/rwye (cf. rgye, rgyes) = Tib. dbye, dbyes, 'extension', 'extent'.

rpag/hrpag (cf. hpag) 'bring low' = Tib. dpag, dpags, 'measure', 'depth'.

rmag/hrmag = Tib. dmag, 'army'.

r = Tib. d, b, or g (cf. 'Tangut' $rnit = g\tilde{n}id$, Amdo rsum = gsum, $rd\tilde{a} = bzla$, &c.):

rkah/hrkah = Tib. bkah, 'word', 'command'.

rkom/hrkom = Tib. bkum, 'kill', dgum, 'die'.

Probably here the real Tib. equivalents are brkah and brkum.

r = Tib. m:

rnab = Tib. mnab, mnabs, 'food'.

rdza, hrdzah (also hdza, hdzah) = Tib. mdzah, 'friend', 'be friendly'.

rdzo = Tib. mdzo.

r = Tib. h or O:

rgyam = Tib. gyam (? rgyam (hgyam)-tshwa), 'recess in a rock'.

hrgyeg = Tib. hgegs, 'stop', 'obstruct'.

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rgyen = Tib yen, 'put in order' (g-yen, 'move softly to and
  fro').
rgyed/hrgyed = Tib. hgyed, 'distribute', 'emit', 'divide'.
rgyen = Tib. gyen, 'uphill'.
rgyer = Tib. hgyer, 'forsake'.
rne/hrne/rnye (ne/hne/nes) = Tib. ne, nes, 'be evil', 'evil'.
rbyo = Tib. bya, 'bird' (pp. 332-3).
rmu/hrmu = Tib. mu, 'boundary'.
rdzar/hdzar = Tib. hjar, 'cohere', 'meet': or = rdza-re?
rdzum/hrdzum = Tib. hdzum, 'smile', 'close eye'.
hrdzur(hdzur) = Tib. hdzur, 'go, or be, aside'.
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A special case is:

rle, hlde/hldehe = Tib. lde, hde, bde, 'fortune', &c. Of doubtful meaning and etymology are:

hrjihi (l. 213).

hrñi (l. 298), rñi (l. 389) = Tib. rñid, 'fade', rñis, 'worn out'? rtre, hrtehu, grtehe (pp. 156, 313).

rders (l. 107); cf. Tib. bdar, rdar, 'adjust', 'grind', 'sharpen', 'polish', 'examine closely'.

hrdyan (1. 202).

hrdyam (l. 137) = Tib. hjoms/gżom, 'subdue'?

rpu (htsog-rpu = Tib. tsog-pu, 'sitting', 'crouching'?) or is htsog-rpu-śe-chań, l. 91 = 'united sons of a family (Tib. spu/spun), strong in wisdom'?

rbyi (l. 375) = byi, hbyi, hbyihi (Tib. dbyi, 'wipe out')? rwyin (l. 33: see p. 346).

spu-rbu (1.39), if it is = Tib. spur-bu, name of a certain deer (in a manuscript), is merely an orthographic variation. hrloho, 'swirl' (l. 15) ? cf. Tib. mig-rlo 'eyeing obliquely'.

It does not seem possible to consider any of the above from the point of view of 'sound change'. As has already been explained, the Prefixes were originally functional; even when the functions were become obsolescent, they remained to the linguistic sense separable elements. The r- and s-Prefixes are, no doubt, very old. But in the earliest known Tibetan the s was still partly functional, as is shown by the frequency of Verbs of the type of spo, Transitive, by the side of the type hpho, Intransitive. Nor can it be said that even r had entirely ceased to be functional: such a form as brnans by the side of bsnan, as Aorist of the Verb mnon/non/snon, manifests an awareness of an alternation of r and s in a certain function.

Hence, when we find, and it is not very rarely, alternative forms where no consideration of function can be alleged, e.g. $r\tilde{n}i/s\tilde{n}i$, 'snare', $r\tilde{n}il/s\tilde{n}il$, 'ear of corn', rke/ske, 'thin', rked/sked, 'waist', rgyan/sgyan, 'ornament', rme/sme, 'spot', there is no ground for phonetical derivation of one form from the other. Both the r and the s belonged to the category of Prefixes available in the particular cases, and the choice was dictated by some fashion or tendency which need not have had invariably local limits. A striking instance is the Amdo form of the word for 'horse', which both in Nam and in Tibetan is rta, no doubt an original Tibeto-Burman form: by Prejevalsky, whose source was exclusively oral, the Amdo form is given as sta.¹ Accordingly, in a country where the r-Prefix is notably prevalent and encroaching and where Tibetan st is most usually represented by rt, the r has been replaced by s in one of its oldest instances.

Consequently, when we find that Nam has no sg, sd, sb (except sbyim), and responds with rg, rd, rb, to Tibetan words beginning with sg, sd, sb, it does not certainly follow that there has been a change of s > r. The case may be one of alternative or of substitution. A proof of this may be seen in the fact that the Tibetan manuscripts have rman = sman, 'medicine', and brgo = sgo, 'door'.

The same reasoning applies to r corresponding to Tibetan d, b, or m, all practically non-existent (b found only in a certain function) in Nam (pp. 166, 196). In the Tibetan manuscripts r is found replacing d in rgum = dgu, m in $r\tilde{n}en = m\tilde{n}en$, and b replacing r in btsal = rtsal. Modern Amdoan has r for d in rka = dkah, $r\tilde{n}\tilde{o} = d\hat{n}os$, $rya\tilde{n} = dbya\tilde{n}s$; for b in rshyot = bskyod, $rd\tilde{a} = bzla$; for g in $rtsa\tilde{n} = gtsa\tilde{n}$, rsum = gsum, rdzuk = gzugs; beside the above-noted rt = st, and, further, rg = sg in rgom = sgom, rga = sga, rgo = sgo; rk = sk in rku = sku, rkad = skad; rn = sn in rna = sna; $rn = s\tilde{n}$ in $rnar = s\tilde{n}ar$; rm = sm in $rm\tilde{a} = smras$; rt = lt in rta = lta.

Absence of the r-Prefix of ordinary Tibetan is seen in the gyud (Nam gyud/kyud), hdzoń (Nam hdzoń/hjoń/rdzoń), of the Tibetan manuscripts. Nor can we be at all certain that the normal Tibetan form is the more original.

In cases where the Nam has r-Prefix lacking in ordinary Tibetan we may sometimes be able to cite a parallel without being able to furnish an explanation. Thus rmu, 'boundary' = Tib.

¹ So in Ladak (Jaeschke, Tib. Grammar, § 7).

mu, has beside it rma = ma, 'not', of the Tibetan manuscripts, and ti-rmi, 'man', ti-rming, 'name' (Tib. min, myin) of modern Gyārūng: the form smyi may be compared to Hōrpa smen, 'name'. Rne, 'evil' = Tib. nes, is paralleled by the rnu = Tib. nu, 'breast', of the Tibetan manuscripts: cf. also the case of rbyo (p. 333).

The forms $hr\acute{s}an$, 'hostile', and $r\grave{z}an$, Il. 54, 56, which must have some kindred meaning, are in themselves remarkable. The former is clearly connected with $h\acute{s}an$ = Tib. $\acute{s}an$, 'hate', and in Tibetan might have been $b\acute{s}an$: in principle it is not different from rkah, rkom, rpag, rmag. $R\grave{z}an$, which does not recall anything in Nam, where the \grave{z} is practically non-existent, is curiously paralleled in one of the Tibetan manuscripts by a form $r\grave{z}en$, $r\~{n}en$ = Tib. $m\~{n}en$, 'make pliant'. This is not a scriptural accident, by reason of the parallels noted (p. 106) in certain Hsi-fan dialects (d'Ollone, p. 73): it looks as if in some circumstances $\~{n}$ became $\ifmmode{j}\ifmmode{j$

The instances of Nam r Prefixed to Verbs which in Tibetan are without it, e.g. rgyed, rdzum, rdzur, provoke the inquiry whether in Nam the r- may have retained some definite functional value. The question is most natural where the text exhibits forms with and without the r: such are hgam/hrgam (rgam), rgyeb/hgyeb, hrhi(rhi)/hhi (hi), hrhe(rhe)/hhe (he), grteh(hrtehu, rte)/gde, hrpehi (rpehi)/hpehi, hrbo(rbo)/hbo(gbohu), hrmag(rmag)/mag, hrdzoh/hdzoh, hrdza(rdza)/hdza, hrdzur/hdzur, one or two others (p. 350) being doubtful.

It is, no doubt, premature to enter into this question. In some cases (rgyeb/hgyeb, hrdzoń/hdzoń, rmag/mag the latter only in mag-no) the alternation seems merely casual; in others the difference, if any existed, has been obscured (hrñi/hñi, hrñe/hñe, hrbo/hbo), or the connexion of the two forms is unproved. But in hgam/hrgam(rgam) the difference = 'community',' form a community', is not only clear in the Nam text, but corresponds to the Tibetan gam/sgam; hdza/rdza also are not improbably = 'friend'/'make friends'; and hpag/hrpag may be partly distinguished as 'low'/ 'lay low'; hdzur/hrdzur perhaps as 'be aside'/leave aside'. Hence it is possible that one function of the r-Prefix was that of forming Denominative Verbs, and that such a function was in Nam not yet extinct.

L- in hlkyan/hglyan = Tib. rkyan, 'wild ass', is not at all surprising on the Tibeto-Chinese border; cf. Central-Asian lku, blkun = rku, rkun, 'steal', 'thief'.

R final:

In the JRAS, 1939, p. 215 and note, reference has been made to the possibility of a loss of final r in Nam spye = Tib. dbyar, 'summer'. Final ar/er is unmistakable in the phyar(pyar)/phyer (pyer) of the text, varying in such a way that an Ablaut relationship between the e/a is highly improbable; and it has been pointed out supra (pp. 33-4) that a place in the Koko-nor region mentioned in the eighth century A.D. as Dbyar-mo-than is known later as G-yar-mo-than, Yar-mo-than, G-yer-mo-than. These cases seem evidence of occasional change of final ar to er, which change is, also with loss of the -r, in fact frequent in some modern E.-Tibetan dialects (supra, p. 78). On the other hand, a change of final -er to -ir, seen in Nam hwyir = Tib. hbyer, 'escape', is paralleled by Hsi-hsia nir, 'relative', if equivalent, as suggested by Laufer (No. 122, p. 104), to Tib. guer: the few other known Hsi-hsia words with final r (Nevsky, Nos. 55, 163, 231, 273, 279, 281) are of indeterminate etymology.

A parallel to spye/dbyar might perhaps be found in the Nam word ste in:

stehi-htam-hmog-dze, 54, 'over the — clouds' hrdzoń-hyo-hśi-dze-ste-gdzu-ge-cig, 194, 356

'On the castle's high zig-zag (ascent) the — asses ceased'.

Here, if ste were = Tib. sde, 'class', 'group', &c., the sense of stehi-htam(htham) would be 'gathered in a mass', and that of stegdzu would be 'asses in troops'. Apposite as this would be, it is open to the serious objection that Tibetan sde is required as the equivalent of a different Nam word, namely, hrde/rdehe, which it fits, while in form supported by rdan = Tib. sdan, 'anger', and rdo = Tib. sdo, 'venture'. If, on the other hand, we bring in Tib. star, 'file on a string', 'fasten', the 'asses in file' will be perhaps more appropriate than 'asses in troops', and the clouds 'in close succession' may not be seriously different from clouds 'gathered in a mass'. Moreover, the ste will furnish a good antithesis to the htharmye, 'fires let loose' of the following line. It is, however, rather unfortunate that hthar also is an -ar word, and it seems preferable to take ste as a form of sten/rten (cf. hdre, hdro = hdren, hdron), 'hold on to', 'adhere to', more especially as the corresponding

Intransitive hthe/hthen, whence the, 'adherent', 'subject', is used in the sense of 'halting' (see S. C. Das's Dictionary).

5. L-Prefix; I final

Instances of *l* prefixed to roots with initial *d*, *dy* have been considered; other cases are rare. If we omit mis-writings, viz. *hltan*, 1. 93 (for *hldan*), *hltah*, 1. 203 (for *hldah*, see ll. 202–3), *hltom*, l. 88 (for *hldom*, see ll. 94, 95), there remain:

hlkyaň, 188 (written hglyaň, 1. 308) = Tib. rkyaň, kiang or 'wild ass'.

lgyoho, 11-meaning obscure.

hlto, 251, perhaps a mis-writing of hldo, but possibly = Tib. ltos(lta), 'look'.

lpyoho, 22 = Tib. hphyo, 'be agitated', &c.

Final l in place of r is seen in:

stel, 181 = Tib. ster (cf. dbyal = dbyar, in the Tibetan manuscripts),

but l = Tib, l in:

 $htul/hthul = Tib. hdul, gdul, btul, thul \\ hpul/hphul = Tib. phul \\ hmyil, perhaps = Tib. myul/ñul, 'rove as spy', &c.$

Lol, 1. 195 (hlon, 1. 357), might be = Tib. rol, 'play'.

The significance of so short a list is diminished by the fact that no other word in the text seems to invite comparison with a Tibetan word in l, except hyu, which in a number of occurrences (ll. 49, 123, 147, 305, 345-6, 350-1, 368-9, 372, 387) is possibly = Tib. yul, 'country', 'district', 'village'.

6. S initial; s final

Before a vowel s, whether initial or preceded by a Prefix, corresponds regularly to Tibetan s; e.g.

 $sa/\hbar sa\hbar/gsa\hbar$ = Tib. sa, 'earth'.

so/gso/gsohu = Tib. so, 'live'.

su = Tib. su, 'who'.

gsar = Tib. gsar, 'new'.

gsom = Tib. som, 'think', and = gsum, sum, '3'.

bsog, 182, hsog, 295, hsag, 389 = Tib. sog, gsog, bsag, bsog, 'accumulate'.

The equivalence extends to cases where Nam wa = Tib. -o; e.g.

swa, 'tooth' = Tib. so.

swah/swa/hswah = Tib. so, 'watch', 'guard'.

hswar = Tib. sor, 'finger'.

Exceptionally s corresponds to Tib. s (cf. bsos/bsos, bsen/bsen, in the Tibetan manuscripts) and vice versa:

hsams, 58 = Tib. śom, gśom, bśoms, bśams, 'make ready'. śon 156 = Tib. son/śon, 'arrive' (?).

S = Tib. ts, tsh in:

se/hse/rse/hrse = Tib. rtse, 'top', 'peak' (in the Tibetan manuscripts se).

se/hse/gse/gsehe/gtse = Tib. gtse, htshe, 'injure'.

hsas/gsas = Tib. btsas, 'born', 'offspring', also gsas.

In general, however, the ts, tsh, survive as such. Where initial s is followed by a consonant, it is not feasible to distinguish generally between s-Prefix and s belonging to the root. Under the heads of (a) presence and (b) absence of s we may take note of factual equivalents to Tibetan as follows:

1. Before k, kh:

- (a) ska = Tib. sga, 'saddle'. skar = Tib. skar, 'star'. sku/skuhu = Tib. sku, 'body'. ske = Tib. ske, 'neck'. sko = Tib. sko, 'select', 'appoint'. $skya\dot{n} = \text{Tib. } skyo\dot{n}$, $bskya\dot{n}$, 'protect', (?). skyar = Tib. skyor, 'hold up' (?). skye = Tib. skye, 'be born', 'live'. skhrud (cf. skho in the Tibetan manuscripts) = Tib. skrud, 'retreat in fear'.
- (b) kya = Tib. skya, 'crop' (cf. Hsi-hsia khya = Tib. skya, 'magpie', Laufer, p. 104 (32)).
 kyen = Tib. skyen, 'swift' (? or mkhyen, 'know'?).
 skyim(hkyim/kyim/hkyim/gyim) has no s in Tib. khyim, 'house', hgyim, 'circumference'.

2. Before t:

(a) sta/stah/hstah = Tib. sta, a suffix. stah/hstah = Tib. stan, 'above'. sti/hti = Tib. sti, bsti, thi, 'rest', 'stop'. stih = Tib. stih, 'rebuke', or sdig, 'sin' (?). ste/hste = Tib. ste, a suffix. ste/stehe = Tib. sten/rten, 'adhere to', &c. (p. 353)?. stel = Tib. ster, 'grant'. sto = Tib. sto, 'rope' (?). sto = Tib. sto, a suffix. ston = Tib. ston, 'empty' (?). ston = Tib. ston, '1,000'. ston = Tib. ston, 'show' (?). stom/hstom = Tib. ston, 'harvest'. stor/hstor/gstor = Tib. stor, 'flee', 'be lost'.

3. Before p and b:

(a) spu-rbu = Tib. spu-rbu, a kind of bird or P.N. of a certain deer (?).

spo = Tib. spo, 'peak'.

spo = Tib. spo, 'change'.

spyi = Tib. spyi, 'head', 'chief'.

spye = Tib. dbyar, 'summer', seems to be a by-form.

Spa/spehi in mehi-spa, l. 151 = mehi-spehi, l. 370, seems to be the same word (cf. p. 191), with the meaning 'sparkle' or 'ornament', which also suits spe in l. 86. Nevertheless, spehi in l. 379 seems equivalent to Tib. dpe, 'example'.

(b) hpahi, Il. 211, 384, hpehi, Il. 211, 386, 387, are plainly identical, and they appear to have the two meanings of spa and spehi. Cf. also spehi/hpehi, p. 282.

Sbyim = Tib. hgyim, 'circumference'? Cf. hbyim, Il. 266, 363?

4. Before ts:

- (a) hstsag(htsag, htsog) = Tib. bstsags, 'collected' (tshogs/htshogs).
- (b) htsan/gtsan = Tib. stsan, gstsan, 'corn'.

Stsah/hstsah, 'watch', and stsar, show in Tibetan (btsah, tshar) no s form, but once r (rtsas).

5. Before n:

(b) Possibly nor = Tib. nor (in manuscript snor), 'farm'.

6. Before n:

(a) sñah/sñih = Tib. sñih, 'heart'.
sña = Tib. sña/gña, 'witness'?
sñi = Tib. gñis, '2'.
sñi/rñi = Tib. sñi/rñi, 'noose', 'tie'.
Sñe (l. 217) is obscure.

7. Before m:

(a) smuhu-hku = Tib. smi-gu/smyu-gu, 'reed'.

Sme, 'blaze', smyi, 'man', have normally in Tibetan no s; but concerning sme see pp. 282–3. Smu, l. 27, is quite obscure; but see p. 259.

8. Before r:

(a) sram/hsram = Tib. sran, 'hard'.

sri = Tib. sri, 'demoness'.

here = Tib. ere, 'soot', &c.

sron = Tib. sron, 'straight'.

9. Before 1:

On sl < zl in slah, slo, slog, see supra, pp. 335-6. Slod is perhaps = a Tib. zlod = lhod/glod/lod, 'to loose'. Sli, hsli, sleg, slug (p. 336 n. 2) are obscure.

10. Before s:

sśam, a highly exceptional form, occurring in:

sśam-stom-hdag-dze-hsar-stomhi, 255

'when the last (?) harvest has come to hand (? hdag = Tib. bdog, bdag), a new harvest'.

If sśam is to be credited with the conjectured meaning, it may be related to Tib. śam/gśam, 'lower', 'later'. Hśam, l. 277, is apparently different.

The cases where Tibetan s before consonants corresponds to Nam r before consonants, a frequent phenomenon in 'Tangut',

have been noted under 'r-Prefix'.

s final, after consonants as well as after vowels, is almost confined to verb-forms, to which it imparts an Aoristic or Preterite sense. In Tibetan also, where the s is used, moreover, to form Imperatives, many nominal forms with final s, both after vowels and after consonants, are plainly deverbal. Hence it is not certain that the Nam, where it lacks a final s present in Tibetan, has lost it. But the fact that its s is restricted to cases where it is functional indicates that in other circumstances a final s would have been lost; and such loss is sometimes suggested by particular factors, e.g. by the \dot{n} (for n) in the Imperative form $\dot{h}tro\dot{n}$, as in Tib. $dro\dot{n}s/dro\dot{n}$, from $\dot{h}dren$, and therefore also in $\dot{h}lob$ (Tib. lobs), Imperative of $\dot{h}lab$.

After vowels the following Aorists or Preterites can be recognized: gras, hgras, hras, htas (= hthas), hldas, hwas, hsas, hsas (gsas) hñis, hldis, hris, hkus, hgrus, hthus, hnus, hbrus, gsus, hsus hkes, ñes, gdes, hbres, rgyes g-yos, hyos, chos.

After consonants we have:

hthogs, hphyegs, rdzogs hgyańs, hsańs rkabs, rgyebs hkroms, hgroms, hproms, hsams hwars, rders (?), htsors, htshors.

In nearly all cases these are found (see pp. 170, 197-8) as Predicates at the end of verses, sentences, or clauses; and in many instances non-Aoristic forms, without the -s, occur. The verbal and Aoristic function is not, of course, impaired when the word is followed by one of the auxiliary verbs re, 'be', hkom, prom, hyo, 'do' or 'effect', as in:

spye-chos-re, 'being begun in summer', rgyes-hkom, 'effect extension', htas-prom, 'made hard or tangled', hchos-hyo, 'make beginning';

or with a governing or accompanying verb or even noun, as in:

gsus-slo, 'call for escort', hbrus-hgyan, 'itch with inflammation', hyos-hlam, 'movement path', htas-kro, 'tangled hate';

or with a verbal or nominal suffix, as in:

hsas-te, 'being born', chos-ta, 'beginnings' or 'things begun'.

In some cases the -s is disguised by being transferred in writing, as frequently in Tibetan, to a following suffix, ta, te, to, making sta, ste, sto, as in:

htsah-ste (= htsahs-te), hwa-ste, gbohu-ste (= gbos-te) hgyań-sto, hrgyań-sto, hrgehi-sto (= hrgehes-to), hńah-sto, (=hńahs-to), hldu-sto, hldyim-sto, htsah-sto (= htsahs-to), hyim-sto.

In Il. 278-9, htag-htos, the -s is attached to the Participle in -to, used as a main verb.

The possibility that the form hśodtsa is an attempt to attach the Aoristic s even to a root ending in d has been suggested supra

(p. 301). Perhaps this, and not merely a feeling for euphony, accounts for the s in hbrad-sta, l. 306. In g-ri(hri, &c.)-sta-mehi, hman-sta-mehi, ll. 311-13, the sta, which follows a nominal word, seems to be different, = sta, 'there'.

We are now left with ses (Aorist of se), 'wise'; hbos (Aorist of hbo, 'swell'), 'the big man' or 'master'; gsas/hsas (Aorist of btsah, 'give birth'), 'offspring', 'children'; hrkas (Tib. skas/skras), 'ladder', 'staircase'; rjes (Tib. rjes), 'aftermark'; hho(s) (evidenced by hho-sta/hho-sto), 'friend', 'partisan' (Tib. hos, 'side'); hyogs (one occurrence, usually hyog/g-yog) apparently = Tib. g-yog, 'serve', 'servant'; and:

hno-sto-ge-rdo-re-cis-tsha-hbyihi, 84, 'when friends venture . . .

gdim-chis(tshis?)-ldom-re, 94, 95, 'under the sway of disappearance and coming (transience)'

khyos-hkhyan-hyu-ge, 212, 'wives united with husbands' hgar-hpu-hches-hno-hkhob-prom, 322, 'the chief blacksmith having made a face-covering (blinkers)'

hpus-hphyah-myi-can, 298 (obscure).

In most of the above-cited single words the -s may have been preserved by a consciousness of its functional, deverbal, character; and this applies even to hrkas and rjes, where the Tibetan also has the -s. For hrkas, perhaps connected with Tib. dkah, 'steep', occurs only in the phrase hrkas-hthan, l. 57, which may be 'putting (Tib. gtan) a ladder or staircase', unless Tib. skas-gdan-bu (=skas, skas-ka, skas-tshan, skras, skras-ka) contains a gdan = gtan, 'stick', and Nam hthan is the same; in the phrase the -s might have been retained. Rjes is a derivative from rjed/brje/brjed, 'change', 'exchange', 'forget', 'remind'; but the phrase in which it occurs,

pyi-rjes-ne-heer, 201-2, 'the good is afraid of a (funeral) memorial',

might contain an Instrumental-Ablative after a verb of 'fearing', if such a Case existed in Nam. A consideration of this last possibility depends upon the words cis, chis, khyos, hches, hpus, in the five passages quoted. Cis (p. 259) and hpus, however, are obscure and therefore must be put aside; chis, even if it is not a mis-writing of the chim, hchim, htshim of Il. 38, 81, 199, can be Aorist of chi, 'go' (Tib. mchis), and not Instrumental in -s; and hches, though certainly connected with the hche, 'great', which elsewhere occurs, may still be = Tib. ches (not che) in its regular deverbal-adverbial

use. There remains, therefore, only khyos = Tib. khyo, 'husband', which is of uncertain derivation and may itself be deverbal, like skyes, 'man'. Accordingly we find nothing to invalidate the negative conclusion (supra, p. 193) concerning the non-existence of a Nam Instrumental-Agential Case, which, had it existed, should have found some expression after words ending in consonants.

7. Nasals, initial and final

A. Initial m is usually unaffected in old Tibetan; but a change of my- to ny- $(\tilde{n}$ -), regular in modern Tibetan and very widely evidenced in Hsi-fan and other languages of the Tibeto-Chinese areas, is to be seen in $myul/\tilde{n}ul$, 'slink', 'rove', 'spy', smyu- $gu/s\tilde{n}ug$ -gu, 'pen', and in mye- $cho/\tilde{n}e$ -tsho of the Tibetan manuscripts. The change has not been found in Nam.

Initial \hat{n} is not often replaced; for instance, the Tibeto-Burman equivalents of Tib. $\hat{n}a$, 'I', and $l\hat{n}a$, '5', commonly retain the guttural (Hodgson writes gn). The Nam text confuses $\hat{n}ah$ and $\hat{n}nah$ (supra, pp. 238-9), and in mag-no, 'battle', the no (dissimilation after g?) is perhaps the same word as in Tib. g-yul- $\hat{n}o$, 'battle'. The cases of $\hat{n}a$ for na (assimilation?), Il. 57, 199, 201, 206, 207 after \hat{n} in $\hat{n}byi\hat{n}$, $rma\hat{n}$, are interesting, because the like is exemplified in the Tibetan manuscripts.

ñ- is the most unstable, being usually in Tibeto-Burman languages represented by n: thus for Tib. gñen, 'relative', the Hsihsia nir (Laufer, No. 122); for sñin, 'heart', gñe/gne/ne (Nevsky, No. 100; Laufer, No. 105, nin); for rje, 'king', ñeh/ne/neh (Nevsky, No. 40); for mñam, 'equal', ñe/ni/nih (Nevsky, No. 217). The word for '2', Tib. gñis, is Gyārūng ka-nēs, Rgya-ron (Pati) ko-nes, Tākpa nai, Mānyak nā-bi, 'Tangut' ni; cf. 'Tangut' nina, 'sun' (= Tib. ñin). The Nam text varies ñe with ne in hkya-wa-ñe. The documents from Central Asia have nun-chad for ñun-chad.

n- is not usually altered: in Thōchū nyik, Hōrpa nya-nya, Golok 41 nierk, Muli nya, Pa-u-Rong nyi, all = Tib. nag, 'black', some confusion may have co-operated. The Central-Asian documents have nan-cher for nan-cher.

The above facts may tend to remove any a priori objections to the following abnormal equations between Nam and Tibetan initial nasals:

nag = Tib. nag, 'voice' in hdzam-nag (ll. 276, 278), 'mild voice', hśan-nag (l. 199) and g-rah-nag (l. 262), 'enemy voice', hnag-htshab (l. 102), 'voice-deputy', Tib. nagt-shab.

nam = Tib. ñams, 'mind', 'spirit', in hnam-hdzam-htar, Il. 145-6, 'the faint-heart escapes'; cf. Tib. ñam (and ñams)chun, 'feeble'.

nam = Tib. ñams, 'damaged', 'spoiled', 'degenerate', in hldan-kran-hnam-dze, l. 126, 'when uprightness degenerates', hpah-hrgam-hnam, l. 259, 'the community of braves declines'; probably also in hnam-hte-hśah, l. 83, 'having declined, was destroyed' (cf. ll. 124-5, hsad . . . hśah).

nar = Tib. nar, 'strength', 'vigour', in:

hvah-hrgehe-ge-sram-pa-nar, 72

'those whose fortune is in the ascendant have firm herovigour';

cf. l. 204.

puń-te-gsar-ńar-hpah-rmag-hcihi ||

'in a body with new vigour a hero-army goes',

where nar is written. Nar/snar/bsnar, 'lengthen', 'long and thin', 'continuous', is less apt. In l. 112, hldan-hkran-hnar-re, the following may be preferable:

nar/hner = Tib. gner/gnar, 'tend', 'provide for', 'procure', in

g-wah-hrśań-hnar[-re], 224, 'procure fierce force'

glah-hlad-hnar[-re], 233, 'procure return for wages' (p. 251) gse-hlad-hnar[-re], 243, 'procure requital of injury'.

Here would belong also hcha-hgrah-nu-nar-dze, l. 239, and the above-mentioned hldan-hkran-hnar-re. An equivalent of Tib. mnar, 'sweet', does not seem likely here.

Hner occurs only in

g-rah-gśog-hner[-re]-śes-hbeg-hśog ||, 7, 20

'To provide wings for-Ses-hbeg was the wings';

nen = Tib. ñen, 'danger' in

hldan-rgye-hdor-re-hwan-ta-hnen, 209-10

'If the big stick (or 'strong support', hldan) is thrown away, ruling is dangerous';

nor = Tib. nor, 'wealth', 'property', 'cattle', in the Tibetan manuscripts snor, apparently 'farm' or 'estate'. This may be recognized in

hnor-hlah-hwam-háid-dze, 11, 'in the high mansions on the farms or estates'.

The same hior, 'wealth', may be seen in ll. 50, 52 (p. 328).

Nor = 'wealth' occurs in l. 151; elsewhere nor, where not = no-re, is = Tib. nor 'fool'.

In one or two places we find an abnormal initial $\hbar y$, a combination otherwise unknown.\(^1\) In 1. 206, $r\hbar ye$ -ne- $\hbar \hbar o\hbar u$, the $r\hbar ye$ is evidently a confusion of $r\hbar e$ and $r\hbar e$, cf. $r\hbar e$ -re- $\hbar \hbar o$, l. 133, $r\hbar e$ -ne- $\hbar re\hbar i$, l. 200. In Il. 362-3, where the readings are partly doubtful and we have in succession $\hbar \hbar yoh$ ($\hbar \hbar ye\hbar e$?), $\hbar \hbar e$, $\hbar \hbar ye\hbar e$, perhaps the same word $\hbar e$ was intended. In l. 28 $\hbar gra\hbar - \hbar \hbar yir - \hbar \hbar yir$ is probably = Tib. πil - $\hbar il$, 'trickle down', with -r = -l, the converse of -l = -r in stel; cf. p. 354.

B. Nasals final: M in stom, 'harvest', ll. 14, 255, 281 = Tib. ston, and $g\tilde{n}im$, 'day', l. 12 = Tib. $\tilde{n}in/g\tilde{n}in$, is probably original, Tibetan having in several instances (e.g. $sto\hat{n}$, 'thousand') -n or - \hat{n} in place of original -m.²

Confusion of final \dot{n} and n is in Tibetan rather common, having perhaps its main root in the cases, such as $dra\dot{n}$ from $\dot{h}dren$, $bzu\dot{n}$ from $\dot{h}dzin$, where \dot{n} is for $\dot{n}s < ns$. To this type belongs the Nam Imperative $\dot{h}tro\dot{n}$ (Il. 224, 233, pp. 199, 357) = Tib. $dro\dot{n}/dro\dot{n}s$, from $\dot{h}dren$, 'lead'; and perhaps therefore $rgo\dot{n}$ = Tib. dgon, 'wilderness', cf. Tib. $dgon/dgo\dot{n}s/rgo\dot{n}s$, 'evening' and $\dot{s}on/so\dot{n}$, p. 355. $Sto\dot{n}-\dot{h}po\dot{n}$, l. 321 = Tib. $sto\dot{n}-dpon$, 'thousand-commander', is perhaps a loan-word.

The loss, or non-accretion, of n in hdre/htre, 'draw', 'lead', is not peculiar to Nam, being found in the Tibetan manuscripts (p. 214) and perhaps also in the common Tibetan word hdre, 'demon'. Hdro, 'go', 'travel' = Tib. hdron, will be similar.

8. Other root consonants, initial and final

A. Tenuis and aspirate:

In the discussion of Orthography (pp. 116 sqq.) we have noted very numerous examples of variation between tenuis and aspirate. In most instances the tenuis is preceded by h; but the great general preponderance in the number of words with that Prefix, and the fact that there are clear occurrences in its absence, render that circumstance insignificant.

The regular alternations of tenuis and aspirate in Tibetan verbal paradigms and the omnipresent phenomenon of such

¹ Except in Khams, where Jaeschke notes (Berlin Academy Monats-bericht, 1865, p. 443) nigen for ñen.

² So also Chinese. On confusions in 'the Tibetan manuscripts' see p. 214.

alternation in the root-groups generally render it extremely difficult to affirm in a particular case that a Nam tenuis replaces an aspirate or vice versa: for example, hkhur, 'with back bent down', is not a phonetic equivalent of Tib. dgur/rgur/sgur, but an independent derivative of the root (perhaps gur) and possibly connected with hkhur, 'carry', and khur, 'load'. Within the limits of Tibetan such cases are not infrequent; for instance, we find pan and phan both meaning 'lap'.

Some probable or certain cases are the following:1

(a) Tenuis written for aspirate (common in the Tibetan manuscripts and documents):

hkah (also hkhah) = Tib. kha, 'mouth', 'speech'. hkan (also hkhan) = Tib. khan, 'house'. hkab (also hkhab) = Tib. khab/khyab, 'home', 'family'. hkar (also khar/hkhar) = Tib. khar/mkhar, 'city', 'citadel'. hkun = Tib. khun, 'hollowed out', 'cave'. hke (also hkhe) = Tib. khe, 'profit'. hkor (also hkhor) = Tib. khor/hkhor (skor), 'surround', 'go round', &c. hkyi = Tib. khyi, 'dog'.kyu, hkyu = Tib. hkhyu/dkyu, 'swift', 'race'. hkye = Tib. khye, khyehu, 'child' (possibly, however, for skye). hkri (also khri, hgri) = Tib. khri, 'seat', 'support'. hci/hcihi/gci/gcihi = Tib. mchi, 'go'. ce (also hee, hehe) = Tib. che, 'great'. htan(than, hthan) = Tib. than, 'plain'. htan(hthan, thwan) = Tib. than, 'power', &c. htam(htham) = Tib. htham, 'united'. htar(thar, hthar) = Tib. thar, 'released'. htas = Tib. hthas, 'hard', 'tangled'. htul(hthul) = Tib. thul, 'tame'. hto(htho) = Tib. mtho, 'high'. htor/tor(hthor/thor) = Tib. thor, 'tuft', &c. hpan(phan, hphan) = Tib. pan/phan, 'lap'. hpu(hphu) = Tib. phu, 'blow'.hpul(hphul) = Tib. phul, 'raised to the top'. hpog(hphog) = Tib. hphog, 'hit'.

hpom(hphom) = Tib. hpham, 'be defeated'.

¹ In some of the following instances (pp. 363-5) the spelling in the manuscript fluctuates (supra, pp. 120-1).

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pyan(phyan) = Tib. hphyan, dpyan, 'dangle'.
pyar(pyer, phyer, hphyer) = Tib. hphyar, 'lift'.
pyi(phyi) = Tib. phyi, 'outside', 'later'.
hprah(hphrah) = Tib. hphra, 'kick' (?).
hpro, Il. 181 (p. 156), 245-6 = Tib. hphro, 'proceed'.
tsan = Tib. tshan, 'complete'.
htsu, tsur (htshu, htshur) = Tib. tshu, tshur, 'hither', 'come
  hither'.
htsors(tshor, htshors) = Tib. htshor, 'chase'.
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(b) Aspirate written for tenuis (common in the Tibetan manuscripts and documents): skhrud = Tib. skrud, 'put to flight'. chi (also ci) = Tib. ci, 'who', 'which'.

gcheg (also hceg, gceg) = Tib. tseg/tsheg, 'trouble', 'hitch'. tha (usually ta) = Tib. ta, a suffix.

hphu (also hpu) = Tib. pu, 'man', 'elder'.

tsha/tshah = tsa, a suffix.

tsham (also htsam) = Tib. tsam, 'only'.

B. Media and tenuis (or aspirate):

(a) Tenuis for media (common in the Tibetan manuscripts): hkan (also hgan) = Tib. gan/dgan, 'full', 'complete'. hkar (also hgar) = Tib. dgar/sgar/skar, 'separate', 'pen'. hko (also hgo) = Tib, go/mgo/sgo, 'place', 'head', 'gate'. hku(smuhu-°) = Tib. gu(smyu°), 'reed'. hkor (also hgor) = Tib. hgor, 'tarry'. hkynd (also hgynd) = Tib. rgynd, 'race'. ska = Tib. sga, 'saddle'. hklo (also glo, hlo) = Tib. glo, 'lungs'. htor (usually hdor) = Tib. hdor, 'cast away'. htre (usually hdre) = Tib. hdren, 'draw'. htron = Tib. hdren, dron, tran, 'draw'. rte = Tib. sde, 'flock', 'troop', &c. (p. 259) = rde (p. 270). rto = Tib. rdo, 'stone'. hltan (usually hldan) = Tib. ldan, 'rise'. hltom (usually hldom) = Tib. ldom, 'bind', 'subdue'. por/hpor (also phor) = Tib. hbor, 'let go' (manuscripts por). hpro l. 321 (usually hbro) = Tib. hbro, 'taste'. hpos (usually hbos) = Tib. hbo, 'swell'.

(b) Media for tenuis (or aspirate) (not rare in the Tibetan manuscripts):

gehu-prom = kehu (hkehu)-°. hgri (also hkri) = khri 'seat'. hdah (hkho°) = htah (hkhoh°). hbu(htor) = hpu and hphu (htor). hdzo-hdza (and ohtsah) = htso-htsah.

The fluctuations of which the above are the most presentable examples might be recognized, especially those between tenuis and aspirate, in a good number of further instances which on the ground of some scruple, generally a possibility of grammatical alternation, are omitted. Hence a statistical interpretation is not feasible; nevertheless, a relative infrequency of the changes tenuis>aspirate and tenuis>media, as compared with their converses, is apparent; and it is natural to conclude that in the actual pronunciation there was a tendency to loss of aspiration on the part of aspirates and to loss of voice on the part of media. But it is not possible to adjust the facts into any of the usual phonological explanations. To a considerable extent there is a normal orthography, which accords with the etymology. If we assume that in the writing hkah for hkhah the scribe followed his ear, when he did not remember the orthographic form, we may conclude either that in actual speech the k was aspirated or that the aspirate had lost its aspiration. But then how did he come to write as tha in stor-tha-hthog, l. 149, the suffix ta, with which he was perfectly familiar and which he gives in the stor-ta-hthog of the same line? Since a complete indifference in regard to t/th cannot be alleged, we are baffled, unless a writing from dictation, affected by casual pronunciations, should afford a clue.1

Fortunately, however, we may disburden the Nam language of responsibility for the fluctuations. For in the Tibetan manuscripts, i.e. in a language which had been very copiously employed in writing, we find fluctuations of like character and amount, and not seldom affecting the same words.2 It may therefore be suspected, since the manuscripts were all, no doubt, written in Sa-cu, where they were found, that the actual scribes were not people of Tibet, but Central-Asians, imperfectly acquainted with the language, Tibetan or Nam, and liable to mishearing of words orally imparted to them. But, if that is the case, we must infer also that, as is not unlikely, private letters were often dictated to

¹ See p. 117.

² Concerning parallel caprice in Central-Asian texts in other languages see p. 117 n. 5.

scribes. For in a letter (Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents, ii, p. 238), of 4 lines only, from a Tibetan military officer we find:

- (a) tenuis for aspirate in mton = mthon, tos = thos, tsal = htshal,
- (b) aspirate for tenuis in thah = ta, phar = par (thrice),
- (c) tenuis for media in mtsad = mdzad (twice), rtsan = rdzan, par = bar (twice),
- (d) media for tenuis in gdan = gtan, gyan = kyan,

and these occur in conjunction with correct writings, such as thugs, bde, bdag, khyams, kha, phyi, dag, rgyags, &c.

The normal Tibetan does not often confuse tenuis and aspirate, except where alternation is regular in the verbal paradigms and in root-forms. As regards Amdo, there is no serious evidence of a change of the type t/th; and, though the converse would account for 'Tangut' tso, 'lake', tok, 'lightning', tūn, 'drink', tsiar, 'rain', ka, 'mouth', Thōchū pi, 'hog', kiḥ, 'house', kwā, 'thou', kwān, 'he' (Tib. mtsho, thog, ḥthun, char, kha, phag, khyim, khyod, khon), no clear conclusion follows from the meagre vocabularies at present available, even if we overlooked their modern date and were sure of their accuracy and interpretation. The case is similar in regard to tenuis/media. As concerns the ancient irregularities in the Tibetan and Nam writings, it seems necessary to acquiesce for the present in attributing the responsibility to the scribes.

C. The groups c, ch, j/ts, tsh, dz.

Confusion between these two groups, scripturally easy and in all old Tibetan writings quite frequent, is exemplified by:

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hcog = htsog, 'collect'.
hscah = hstsah, 'watch' (Tib. btsa).
chis = tshis.
hjah = hdzah, 'eat' (Tib. za).
hjam = hdzam, 'mild' (Tib. hjam).
hjar = hdzar, 'adhere' (Tib. hjar).
hju = hdzu, gzu, &c., 'tiger', 'ass'.
hjo = hdzo, 'eat' (Tib. zo).
jon, hjon = hdzon, rdzon, 'castle' (Tib. rdzon, hdzon).
rje = rdze, 'king' (Tib. rje, and manuscripts rdze).
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Further serious matters in connexion with initial consonants hardly arise. If brom/hbrom, ll. 72 (pp. 226, 342), 297 = Tib. hgrum, 'pinch or nip off', and htrog, l. 40 = Tib. hbrog (see p. 327), they

belong to a class of cases where in Tibetan itself, especially before y, r, l, we find an alternation of b and g, sometimes (before r) of d also. The Tibetan manuscripts have hbrum for hgram, 'border', blo for glo, and elsewhere we find hdrul/hgrul, hgrim/hbrim, hgye/hbye, &c.

D. Final consonants

Except the above noted, sporadic, instances of -l for -r (stel) and \dot{n} for n, and the possible loss of final -s, there seems to be practically nothing that calls for notice. There are no apparent instances of -b for -g, as in the lhab, pyab = lhag, phyag, of the Tibetan manuscripts. If $sti\dot{n}$ in ll. 330–1, 335–6 were = Tib. sdig, 'sin' (but probably it is $sti\dot{n}$, 'rebuke'), it would correspond to the $sti\dot{n}$ of one of the Tibetan manuscripts, which present other instances also of confusion of final g, gs, with \dot{n} , $\dot{n}s$.

9. Vowels, medial and final

A. Medial

Apart from the normal ablauts, e/a, o/a, e/o/a, exhibited by Tibetan roots, there is little in respect of medial vowels that calls for note.

- a for i in sñañ (also sñin) = Tib, sñin, 'heart', is found also in the Tibetan manuscripts. Possibly it is due to confusion with sñan, 'pleasant'; but it is exactly paralleled by 'Tangut' śan = Tib. śin, 'wood', 'tree', &c.: see p. 108.
- i for e in hwyir = Tib. hbyer is paralleled by stigs = stegs, cis = ces, &c., of the Tibetan manuscripts.
- i for u in myil = Tib. myul, 'creep privily', may be compared with g\(\hat{z}i = g\(\hat{z}u\), 'bow', mu = mi, 'man', in the manuscripts, which have also u for i in mu, 'man', cf. the placenames \(Mi-\tilde{n}ag/Menia/Mu-nia\) and \(Mi/Me/Mu-li\).
- e for a in rgyeb = Tib. rgyab, phyer/phyar = Tib. phyar, and perhaps therefore in spye = Tib. dbyar, ste = Tib. star, and the name (Hses-)hbeg (cf. the Rbag(Rbeg) of the manuscripts), has been mentioned supra (p. 134), as perhaps dialectical; cf. tseb, bleg, sen, for tshab, blag, san, in the Tibetan manuscript Chronicle.
- o for a before -m, -ms, in hpom/hphom, 'be defeated', seems to have been regional, since it appears in several place-names ending in -tsoms = -mtshams, and -boms/-goms = -bams/-gams, belonging to NE. Tibet.

o for u is seen in gsom = Tib. gsum, 'three', rkom = Tib. bkum, 'slain', hkom/gkom = Tib. hkhums, hgums, bkum, 'execute (a task)', rom = Tib. rum, 'darkness', 'dark hollow', hklom = Tib. klum (p. 280), drom = Tib. drum/drun (p. 219), lom (p. 233) = Tib. lums, 'bath', Hsi-hsia lom, 'well' (Laufer, no. 114)? The word slog/slug occurs in the two forms (ll. 174, 359): the slug of l. 47 is evidently a different word. Hkah-hcog = kha-tsug, of the Tibetan manuscripts, and trog/htrog, 'enemy' (= Tib. hdrugs, 'agitate'?) may be further examples of the same.

B. Final

The duplications of final vowels, resulting in -aha, -ihi, -uhu, -ehe, -oho, have been noticed in the chapter 'Grammar' (pp. 169); also the combinations with hi, resulting in -ahi, -uhi, -ehi, -ohi. There remain -ehu and -ohu, together with some other cases of -u.

-ehu, which in Tibetan is commonly used (a) to represent Chinese -ao, in its old pronunciation, and (b) in so-called diminutives, such as behu, 'calf', from ba, 'ox', appears also in some apparently non-diminutive words, e.g. khyehu, 'child', drehu, 'mule', lehu, 'chapter', nehu, 'green meadow' (nehu-than, 'gsin): in the last group of cases it usually has a by-form (e.g. khye, dre, le, ne) with e only, a good example being the name of the famous king Khri-sron Ldehu (or Lde)-brtsan. The derivation of behu from ba-bo, in itself highly questionable, is rendered more so by the relation to -e. The forms seem to have been favoured in Amdo, the Tibetan manuscripts and documents having khyehu, glehu, sgyehu, chehu (also 'hi), drehu, mdehu (= mdah, 'arrow'), ldehu, behu, byehu (= bya, 'bird'), nehu, snehu, tshehu, zehu, lehu (= la, 'pass'). The forms in -ehu were, therefore, ancient and widespread, and their derivation and meaning is problematical.

In the Nam examples the relation to -e is permeating. We have:

 $\hbar ke\hbar u(ke\hbar u, ge\hbar u)$ -prom = $\hbar ke$ -prom

glehu = Tib. glehu/gle, 'edges (?) of ploughlands'

hrtehu = grtehe/gde, 'fix' (?)

nehu = Tib. nehe, 'young', 'fresh'

tswehu = htswe/hdzwe/hdzwehe

hdzehu = Tib. gze-re, 'weak'.

The Nam, therefore, confirms the antiquity of the forms; but it does not enlighten us concerning their etymology.

On the possibility that some cases of -ehi = -e are derived from -ehe see supra, p. 192: on -a/-ehi (cf. -a/-ehu) pp. 191-2.

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-ohu occurs in:
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hkohu (°prom, °me) = hkhohu = hkohi (°me) = hkhoho.
hnohu (l. 206) = hño.
hjohu (l. 137) = hjo, 'chief', or hdzo, 'man'.
htohu (l. 7) = hto?
hldohu = ldo, hldoh.
ldyohu = ldyo.
nohu (l. 41).
gbohu = hbo.
hbyohu = hbyo.
hdzohu = hdzo, 'man', or hdzo, 'act'.
gsohu = gso, 'live'.
```

Of these equations some are not beyond doubt; but the certain ones, hkohu, hhohu, ldyohu, hjohu (alternating with hdzohu), gbohu, gsohu, suffice to prove that the -ohu is indistinguishable in meaning from -o: it may, therefore, represent an occasional pronunciation of the normal variant -oho. Are there any other indications of a final -o inclining towards the pronunciation -u?

A certain instance is to be seen in the varied forms, both occurring more than once, of the name Mye-kru, 'kro, in one of the Tibetan manuscripts: and in ordinary Tibetan there are instances, such as phu/pho, 'elder brother'. In the Nam text the variation between hbrus, and hbro in the repeated verse lines 152-3, 158 furnishes a good parallel; and the hdru (cf. Tib. dru-bu, 'qu, grugu, 'a clew or skein of thread') of hdru-hjar, 'caught in the toils' (cf. p. 272), may be = dro, 'net', of one of the Tibetan manuscripts. The possibility that the Nam expression hrim-hgru corresponds to Tib. rim-hgro (supra, p. 308) is also apposite in this connexion. In Hsi-hsia -u = Tib. -o and -o = Tib. -u have been noted by Dr. Laufer (p. 101). The Nam word mu, when it seems to mean 'sky', corresponds to what in Hsi-hsia is mo and in Hsi-fan and Tibeto-Burman generally is usually mo or mon. In Hsi-fan $\bar{u} < o$ is frequent or normal, e.g. in Rgya-ron slu = Tib. glo, 'lungs'.

The -wa = Tib. -o in swa (also Tib. swa), 'watch', and swa, 'tooth', and similarly in swar = Tib. sor, 'finger', wa-hdan/hwa-hldan = Hsi-hsia 'o-din, Tib. 'o-ldon/ho-don, 'neck', 'windpipe', is perhaps original, although in later times we find Gyārūng wāki, Tākpa wa, derived, no doubt, from Tib. hog, 'below', and in Yūnnan Tibetan -wa for -o is frequent.

The above discussions may serve to exemplify the methods and materials available for ascertaining the meanings and etymological relations of Nam words. In the case of a previously unknown language, where every word sheds obscurity upon its neighbours, a definite knowledge of some word-meanings is an early requisite. A monosyllabic language, abounding, like the Tibetan, in homophones and in unconnected meanings of other sorts, is especially elusive; and, in consequence of the play of consonantal Prefixes, the systematic variations of initial consonants, and ancient vowel-Ablauts, the seizable part of an individual monosyllable is reduced to very little. The popular Tibetan of the eighth- to ninth-century 'documents' and of the more or less contemporary texts of what we have cited as 'the Tibetan manuscripts' has, moreover, a Protean range of orthographic variation and frequent caprice in its employment. Only by observing the system of the morphological variations and becoming aware of habits shown in the orthographical fluctuations can we attain a conviction as to what is, or is not, possible in a particular case.

As students of even ordinary Tibetan, and certainly of old popular Tibetan, are aware, a fairly definite apprehension of wordor root-meanings is insufficient for the purpose of reaching, as we do in such languages as Greek, Latin, or Sanskrit, the meaning of the phrase or sentence; the syntactical indications are too lax and too few. It is by a sort of conjecture that the total meaning is conceived, and the verification is through familiarity with usage and comparison of parallels. The mentality of the Ch'iang peoples, whose history is known only from notices in Chinese Annals and biographies and from whom there has hitherto been a total lack of literary record, would be merely conjectural but for the existence of the fragmentary pieces to which we have been referring as 'the Tibetan manuscripts'. These, emanating from the same milieu, more or less, as the Nam text and partly concerned in a general way with the same subjects, do to some extent prepare us for comprehending the notions and interests involved in the text. Occasionally they furnish convincing evidence in detail: for instance, in the Nam expression smyi-glog we might, after making sure of smyi as = Tib. myi/mi, 'man', hesitate to recognize glog as = Tib. glog, 'lightning', and seek some other etymology and meaning, if we did not find in one of the manuscripts a proverb which explicitly compares a man of prompt activity to lightning, thus assuring the translation 'a lightning man'. The manuscripts are, therefore, an essential part of the materials for the work of interpretation.

A fair number of the recurrent words and phrases in the text have been under consideration; and further meanings and etymologies, either consequent or comparable or not calling for longer examination, will be found in the Vocabulary. If a good proportion of all these ventures shall prove to have been successful, some serious inroads will have been made into the initial obscurity of the language and text. Apart from external points d'appui, which afford unmanipulated testimony, the most satisfactory verification should be found in continuous translation: in such languages as Nam or Tibetan a verse or a sentence might in some cases by aid of ingenuity be made to yield a reasonable sense, etymologically impeccable, but quite different from the original intent: the possibility of such illusion recedes pari passu with the increase in the extent of the passage in question. At present an attempt at a complete translation would be marred by numerous gaps and queries due to lack of comprehension, not to mention the fragmentariness of the text itself; and there might be a temptation to hazard renderings not based upon proof or mature conviction. The somewhat numerous versions of short passages or verses, taken along with the Abstract given supra (pp. 159 sqq.), may afford some conception of the matter and the modes of expression.

It could not have been intended to draw up any list of 'sound changes', or a lautlehre of the Nam language. An indispensable preliminary is the ascertainment of the meanings of the words, which, as factual matters, are established by use of all available sources of evidence. But it may be doubted whether an eventual lautlehre of Nam will ever be very extensive. The text is written in Tibetan script, which, as devised by Indian pandits of the seventh century A.D. for the representation of the Tibetan language, pronounced to them by a royal envoy dispatched for the purpose, is likely to have represented a contemporary pronunciation with a more than ordinary accuracy. In the use of that alphabet the Tibetan and Central-Asian scribes had had a vast experience, including some practice in writing foreign languages. The Lha-sa inscriptions and the more carefully written Central-Asian manuscripts are not remarkable for irregularities of spelling as distinguished from what later became archaisms of vocabulary or script. The common 'documents', with their multitude of different unlearned writers, present peculiarities both dialectical

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and individual; and for some reason some of 'the Tibetan manuscripts' are replete with abnormalities and inconsistencies. especially, it seems, in regard to distinction of tenuis and tenuis aspirata and, to a less extent, in regard to distinction of tenuis and media, while the vowels are more constant-the Sandhi of Particles is often abnormal. In this matter the Nam text is on the same general level as 'the Tibetan manuscripts', and it probably exhibits no irregularity which cannot be exactly paralleled in the latter. If we regularize the orthography and ascribe the fluctuations to some rather general differences between what was orthodox and what, in the case of oral tradition of popular compositions, was actually heard, we shall find that, except in respect of the actual use of Prefixes, which were more restricted in number than in Tibetan, and in respect of the absence of initial vowels (whether with h or ') and the practical non-occurrence of ż, z, and h, the Nam phonology was notably similar, as was the word-morphology in general, to the Tibetan. Few of the phonetic deviations from Tibetan (in our present view almost entirely due to degeneration) which Dr. Laufer assembled on pp. 98-105 of his essay on Hsi-hsia can be paralleled in Nam. Accordingly the phonology of Nam may be treated to a great extent by mere reference to Tibetan.

It is possible that an excessive appearance of resemblance to Tibetan results from the predominance of the latter among the aids to investigation, the other known Tibeto-Burman languages being all inferior by many centuries in date and most of them recorded only in modern times, so that their forms may be degenerate in the same degree as the modern Lha-sa Tibetan. The resemblance of Nam to the early Tibetan is not such that even, perhaps, a single verse in the text would yield its meaning to a Tibetanist or Tibetan person either forthwith or through normal use of a Tibetan dictionary. The Grammar is simpler (though the verse parts of 'the Tibetan manuscripts' make some approximation), and the words are identifiable only when regard has been paid to principles of word-morphology in Tibetan and the alternatives which they involve. Nevertheless the resemblance turns out to be somewhat striking. In monosyllabic languages, indeed, correspondence of root-words, not obliterated, as so frequently in other forms of speech, by additions of suffixes, may be, when phonetic changes have been discounted, rather a general characteristic. As is apparent upon consultation of the Comparative Vocabularies in the Linguistic Survey volume, the original monosyllables are to a large extent recognizable in the corresponding terms, sometimes modified by mere phonetic change, sometimes incorporated in new monosyllables, sometimes fitted out with new, syllabic, prefixes, suffixes, and other exponents. But the Nam forms are appreciably on the same phonetic level as the Tibetan: they have more or less corresponding interchanges of initial consonants and Ablauts of vowels. It cannot be supposed that the other languages of the family, taken at the same level of date, would have revealed a like degree of affinity. Even in 'Tibet' the differences between the languages of the family are not a mere matter of chronology. This can be proved by inspection of the only other language of the group having records coeval with the Nam and the early Tibetan. This is the Zan-zun language of the Mānasa-sarovar-Kailāsa region, whereof some short specimens have been published in the JRAS. 1933, pp. 405-10. Very possibly it may turn out that the root-forms of Zan-zun are in a large measure shared by the Tibetan and the Nam. But the grammar and the actual words are, on the surface, entirely different, and the identification of the common elements will demand a study as intent as in the case of Nam.

The resemblance between Tibetan and Nam may call for a revision of our preliminary impression that in the early times of historical Tibet a great gap, geographical and linguistic, separated the Tibetan and Ch'iang peoples. We may have to group them together as Eastern instead of separating them as Southern and North-Eastern: the western Tibetan dialects, Ladāki, &c., are, no doubt, all derivative, consequent upon the conquests of Sronbtsan Sgam-po and his successors. In this connexion it is interesting to note that the purest existing form of Tibetan proper, namely the 'Tangut' of the Koko-nor region, as exemplified in Prejevalsky's vocabulary, is likewise colonial, being spoken in an originally Ch'iang area: allowance being made for a few phonological peculiarities, this dialect does not appear to differ seriously from the book language.

NOTE TO TEXT

The passages printed as prose betray frequently, but not at all points, a metrical intention, with verse varying (as elsewhere), irregular or miswritten. The punctuation being unreliable or inadequate, the beginnings of sentences after | (not after |) are here indicated by an added mark (|). On extra-metrical -o, na, ni, hi, also don, at end of lines and on monosyllables with -r = -re, -r-re, or -ra see pp. 126–8, 173–81.

TEXT

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[1] . . . r(n?) . . . [2] . . . . rkah(?) . . . [3] . . . (8 akṣaras) [1 hra .
1 hlda . . . ] hśes | beg . hr . . hran . [hlda] . .
[4]. . . (14 akṣaras)-[gñe . . gż(?)og]. . . (10 akṣaras)
     [5] [r]am1 | ge | hwan || re | klu | ge | hwan ||
     hran | hlda | hnam | hge | hśes | beg | hyan |
                                                                            5
             mog2 | htswe | re | mye | hyan | hwad |
     hran | hldah | hnam | ge | hrpag | hkhur | hskuhu ||
     [7] [skuhu ?] | na<sup>3</sup> | hśes | hbeg | [hldoho ?] | dze | hrňo | htohu |
        re | hgyan |
     g-rah | gśog | hner4 | śes | [8] hbeg | hśog |
     sta | hldyan | htye | dze | hmo | ge | me | hgrah |
                                                                            10
     hrahn | hlda<sup>5</sup> | hnam | hge<sup>6</sup> | hrah<sup>7</sup> [9] hyos.] | hldom |
     sta | re | hmo | hno | ge | sta | hri | hldyan ||
     hmu | hrnu | skhrud<sup>8</sup> | dze | mor | htan | [10] [hgras] ||
     hldi | hrkah | hldyan | dze | hyan | htan | hgras | b
     hlah | gsom | hram | [11]10 [h ?] lgyoho | ge | htan | hmu | hro | | 11 15
     hnor | hlah | hwam | hśid | dze | hrwan | hkan | [12] hkan |
     hbo | hkom | ldyan | dze | hldab | hde | hde |
     gñim | hti | hldyan | 12 hgye | hkrom | [13] hkrom
     hkra | hrag | hldyan | ge | hsrehi | hkyeb | hkyeb
     hdon | hri | hldyan | ge | [14] spo<sup>13</sup> | hpod | pod<sup>14</sup> |
                                                                             20
     hran | hri | hldyan | 15 hsehe | hwad | hwad |
     htan | hldu | hldyan | ge | hstom | [15] hkom | hkehi ||
     g-yog | hśań | ma | hpul | dze | hmar | hbab | ge | hrl160ho ||
     hbu | rwye | [16] hee | rgyan | dze | hldyo | htor | ge | hnus ||
     hkrug | hrdzo | hgyud | dze | hrno | hyod | yod17
                                                                             25
     <sup>18</sup>hrne | [17] gsan | hgre | dze | ñe<sup>19</sup> | hkyeb | hkyeb |
     hkhah<sup>20</sup> | hrpag | hnor | hlan | hsi | hrog | hpah | to | [18]
        h-21hskvim | se22 | hrmoho |
     hdzań | hkhor | hkrug | hkyań | hyogs | hldog | hbar<sup>23</sup> |
        hwah | [19] [h]t[i]b . bžer |
     hdar | hti | hwer24 | hldu | hro |25 hgru ||
                               1 hsog?
                                                       5 m here crossed out.
  * Understand hner | re? (metre!). Cf. l. 20.
                                                  * skhud? (a correction).
                              7 h below line.
  4 dze (?) here crossed out.
                                                            11 hron ?
                                    10 -g here crossed out.
  " hbo | here crossed out.
                                    18 lpo?
                                               14 pod added below line.
  12 Insert ge or dze ? (metre).
                                     16 I inked over: correction from hroho?
   15 ge here omitted ? (metre).
                                              18 rdz here crossed out.
  17 yod added below line.
                                  20 h a correction of r (crossed out?).
  19 ño added below line.
          22 Corrected to skhre ? (erasure and blur). 23 = hbah-re?
                                     25 bžer | here crossed out.
  24 Read hwe-re? (metre).
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sta | re | hmo | ge | sta | hri | hldvan [20]
        stah | hldyan | hthye1 | dze | hmo | ge | me | hgrah |
        g-rah | gśog | hner2 | hśes | hbeg | hśog [21]
        hgru | hldan | hmah | dze | htsa | gsom | hkhog |
        ga | bzań³ | g-ri | hruhu | hrań | hrah | [22] [h]rwehi |
5
        smuhu | hku | hyob | ge | hmar | myi | lpyoho ||
        hgru | hldan | hmah | ge | hses | [23] hbeg | hrah ||
        htsah | gsom | hkog | ge | hses | hbeg | hrah |
   na | gsom | sñi | [24] hyañ ||
        hgru | hsram | htam | ge | hśes | beg | hstah ||
10
        klu | hrto | htsa | ge | hśes [25] hbeg | mehi ||
        klu | rto | htsah | ge | hrah | hvos | hlam ||
        ses | hbeg | hrbo | dze | [26] hldveg | hldvi | hti | dze | hrah |
           g-vos | ge | hsar ||
        g-rah | hyos | ge | hsar | [27] g-rah | g-yo | rbo | ge | hglu<sup>4</sup> |
           ma hti 15
        smu | hdzu | rgyag | dze | hldań | rmań | hrwehi ||
15
             [28] hdag | dze | hgran | hnyir | hnyir | |
        hswar | hldu | sto | dze | g-yo | hpud | hto | hdag<sup>7</sup> | hpoho |
                                           [29] hwar | hwar ||
        hde | hvim | sto | rgyag | rgu | hmyil | myil8 |
        htor | hpu | hgru | dze | gla | hdzo [30] htsah ||
20
        hgru | hldan | ma | dze | hrgu | hto | hrun ||9
        gśań | re | htad | to | dze | hbrah | hldar [31] | ma<sup>10</sup> | hyob |
        hñed | 11htram12 | htsah | glah | tah | hbra | 13hldar | ma | hyob | |
        g-van | ra | [32] hrnab | hldah | htah | hbra | hldar | ma | hyob |
25 hrgu | hto | hrun ||
        bgru | hma | hkom | re | hrwad | [33] hmon | bldah |
        htor | hbu [ | ] hgru | dze | hse | hte | hmun |
   hnah | hran | ge | rwyin ||
        na | htsah | [34] ste | dze | hldyo | htor | ge | hnus | dze |
30 g-rah | hyos | htag | ge | hjoho ||
        śid | g-ri | htor | [35] dze | hgru | hldań | hmah ||
        mehi | g-ri | htah | dze | 14 rtah | htsog | hram |
                                   2 Read hner-re? Cf. L. 7.
     1 hrbye? Cf. l. 8.
     gbzan ? gan | zan ? (corrected from °m).
                                                         4 hgru?
                                                a hnyir added below line.
     bgru | h here crossed out.
     7 It may be suspected that of the words g-yo-bpud-hto-hdag the first two
   belong to the previous line of verse, and should precede hdag there.
     * mvil added below line.
                                     Punctuation here completed by reviser.
                       11 Underline correction from hyede
     10 BB T
                                                                    in htras?
     13 Punctuation here due to reviser.
```

Punctuation here confirmed by reviser.

rgyed | [36] hsań | rgam | cań | hldyo | hrje | hbro || śes | hmad | hdzwehe | re | hpah | hron || hkes [37] hran | hldah | hnam | ge | klu | hto | hkyim | rje | smyi | rmad | ge | htsog | hram | hdroho | [38] hśi | hgri | hchim¹ | ge² || hldyań | hrdzań | hdzań || 5 rbyo | hphah | hdar | [39] dze | hkye | ge | hmu || šes | hmad | hdzwe | dze | myag | mye | htan ||3 rgon | spu | rbu | dze | hgyaid4 | ge5 | hban [40] hphu | hklo | hsad | dze | hnah⁶ | me | hmyi || htrog | htor | te | dze | hldyo | ge | hnus | 10 mor | hphu | [41] hbos | dze | hnud7 | nohu | hphul || hyan | rmyi8 | hsah | dze | hgwa | nehu | hkehi || na | hldom [42] hgor⁹ | hkyań | hrgyań | hdzud || hsah | htsah | hdzan | dze | hklom | ge | htul | bos | smyi | [43] hldog | dze | hrah | ldah | ge | hdzah | | 15 gdah¹⁰ | hdih¹¹ | gtar | pra | hrehe | hldyan | bos | [44] smyi | hldog | ge | śes | gśi | hlduhu || htsah | htsah | hdzań | ge | śes | hśi | brehe | hrin | [45] rwa | hkar | re | hñan | hya12 htsag || skah | rah | hdzur | dze | hldag | hbah | hldon || 20 re | ma | [46] hnad | ge | hbehe | hsli | rman || hmar | me | hukah¹³ | ge | hrdzah | hgo¹⁴ | hpo || gte | me | hkah | ge15 | dam | [47] rma | hbron || gci | me | hśi | ge | hbehi | bah | hbu | hrug | hñed | ge | slug | dze | hwehi | hśi | [48] hpo || 25 hre | ge | rgvo | dze | hphu | hśeg | hldyihi || twan mag hnor16 gse hc17an hldyan dze [49] rnam nar hyuhu hkyan mag hnor18 hrno hcan hram dze gśe hrdzro hnah19 ||20 hce | ra²¹ [50] tsha | ge | hce | hra | hbyi | na | tsham | hrog | hnor |

^{1 =} htshim, l, 81. 2 htsog | hram | hdo here crossed out. The punctuation || after go is ³ Punctuation reinforced by reviser. probably due to confusion. 6 Corrected below line to hge. 4 hgyed? Correction from hgyaid. 7 hu a correction of ja. hnah below line, a correction of myag. * Read hgor-re ? (metre). pyi? rpyi? myi? 10 g added below line. 11 hida written? See scansion. 13 Sic. 14 hko ? 12 ya? The h a correction of la. 15 ge added below line. 18 For hno-re? Cf. 1. 58. 18 For hno-re? 17 c a correction (of rts or c, clumsily written?) 20 Punctuation reinforced by reviser. 13 Corrected from hhar or hhah. 11 | bee | ra inked over.

378 TEXT: LINES 51-67 1hbu | rbve | hce | rgvan | na | hldvo | tor | [51] hnus | g-yog | hśan | ma | hpul | dze | hmar | hbah | ge | hrab || hlduhu | ce | rgyań | na2 | stoń | hkhog | re | hldya [52] hkań | hte | hnor | 'gldag | hee | rgyan | na | hldag | khri | khyag | re | hśid || 5 hmog | hee | rgyań | [53] rgya | hñi | ke | hkor | hśid | | rbyo | hko | rno | dze | hphon | ge | thrah | | na | hce | ge | me | hved | 'hko | [54] rno | hce | dze | rb3ab | na | hke | hkog || stehi | htam | hmog | dze ržan | hba | ge | rgyehe | na | 'hko | rno | hce | [55] dze | hmoge | hco 'gmog | hee | rgyan | dze | hko | rno | ge | heo | 'gmog | hee | hsa | dze 10 hbah | hrag | [56] hkyer | hnah | hce | hrah | hbyin | na | hrbyo hko | rho | | rhe | hho4h | ržan | dze | na | ge | me | na | [57]6 hbyin | rgyan | hee | ma7 | hbyin || hce | hse | rgye | re | hrkas | hthan | hlde || rbyo | hce | rgye | [58] dze [|] hrgu | hrgehi | sto || 9sku | mag | hno | dze | me | na | hldis | 15 hdah | mag | hno | dze | me | na | hsams [59] | sbyim | hee | rgye | dze | hrwa | hdah | hpog || hsas | hee | rgye | dze | hran | hgam | hyim | rgon [60] hee | rgye | dze | hldan | hrgyu | htam ||

20 hkhu | tsa | śid | dze | hpha | hnur | hnur || gphah | tsa | glom | dze | hkhu | [61] hnur | hnur || 10 [62]

~ || : | háid | hrihi | hthor¹¹ | dze | hgru | hldañ | hmah | htor | hphu | hgru | dze | gla | htso | htsah | ha | [63] yañ¹² | hso | hrñi | dze | mo | ma | hthor |

25 hyan | so | hdze | tse | hldi | ma | hrtah || hyan | tsa | hjo | dze | [64] hyan | ge | hgroms |

tor | hpu | hgru | ge | hstor | mon | hdzon | re | htsa | hdzo | hkrom | gsu | [65] prom | hnor | htsah | hpu¹³ | hdrom || ldan | pyer | hgag | re | htsah | hyah | hdo ||

30 hpha | ma | sñań | [66] | ne | ge | bu | lta¹⁴ | ge | sñań | glań | hgahi | hyań | hrah | hkah | hldom | ge | ru | ¹⁵ glań | ge | [67] hthul | hi ||

1 With these two verses cf. U. 15-16. 2 ce | rgyan | na added below line.

2 rh a correction (of rb?). Read ba?

* ce here crossed out: the h accidentally left in.

b here crossed out.

2 here crossed out.

Read hee | hee ?

* This and the following verse seem to interrupt the series of expressions: an insertion?

A short line. Before the next line there is a blank of about the width of a line.

11 Correction of hphor?

13 Read hyan: h(a) | yan is merely the result of a line-ending.

13 Correction of gái (crossed out). Hhor = hho-re.

14 ru | lta (a correction of glan) crossed out? 15 s here crossed out.

```
hko | se | bgro | re | btsa | byah | bdo |
     bjo | me | hdub | re | hlab | ma1 | hñi |
     hban² | [68] re | hko | htar | dze ||3 hna | hlam | glo | hran ||4
     hdzam | hbron | hron | dze | hdam | to | hbu | hpor |
[69] skyim | se | hdzar | dze | hbehi | la | hgar<sup>6</sup> |
     thar | pyan | hjo | dze | hphag | la | gnah ||
     gcog | [70] hlde | hldu | dze | h<sup>7</sup>byig | la | gnah ||
     hjo | me | hdub | re | hlab<sup>8</sup> | me | hñis |
     ru | ge | hkrom | dze | [71] hmo | ma |9 thor |
     hcha | ge | hcer | dze | hldi | ma | rtah ||
                                                                             10
     hde | me | htah | g-ron | hyed | ge | ta<sup>10</sup> | hwa [72] ste | htah | | 11
     gśi | brom | hnu | ge | hsor | htsam | bzod |
     byah | brgehe | ge | sram | pa | nar [73]
     hwa | ste | hge | dze | hla | hram | hte ||
     htor | smyi | hbom | ge | gla | htso12 | htsah |
                                                                             15
     hphah | [74] ma | rah | ge | htsah | hjo | hdzin
     hkuhu | nehu | htshe | re | wehi | nehu | hrehe
     dgu | hldo | htor | [75] dze | hsoh15 | hsoh14 | htshu |
     hwa | ste | hgehe | dze | dgu | htor | hbyi15 |
     hwa | ste | bge | dze | lah | [76] hram | hte | chan | dgu | htor | 20
        htshu
     do | ldo | hdzo | chan | dgu | htor | htshun | re | [77] hrah |
        hrtah | hgyanna |
     dgu | hldo | htor | dze | hldo | hdzor | re | hlde | ge | hgru<sup>16</sup> | ma |
        rman | [78] na |
     ldyan | hjo | hjihi | re | mehi | ra | hgam ||
     dgu | hldo | htor | ge | stor | hmon | jon [79]
     hldan | phyi | ske | re | | hno | stor | prom | re | hgru<sup>17</sup> | ma | 25
        hstor |
     stor | hto | rta | yan | stor | to | [80] hrun | 0
     rta | hso | hnah | yan | gñi | hrdzum | doho ||
      smyi | hni | hśige | smyi | rmad | ldań 18 | [81]
      hkyan | rgyan | hśig | dze | hśi | hkri | htshim | 19
      hśań | re | hśig | dze | hmog<sup>20</sup> | re | [82] hldoń
                                                                             30
                                         2 n below line.
   1 Read me, as in 1, 70?
   <sup>2</sup> Punctuation reinforced by reviser.

    Punctuation reinforced by reviser.

                                                    7 h added below line.
                         " r inked over.
   hphor?
                                           Something here crossed out.
   b smudged or crossed out.
   10 hadded below line. 11ta added below line. 13 Punctuation reinforced by reviser.
                                                  14 h added below line.
   13 heo ?
                                                                17 hglu ?
                                                  16 hglu?
   15 h below line: hbyi correction of hgya?
   18 Correction from ldah, 19 hchim? Cf. 1. 38. 30 h added below line.
```

rtah¹ | htsog | hram | dze | hrgon | hru | ge | hru | re | rbvo | ha | ge² hcah | trte | hvu | [83] rgvag | dze | hldas | htso | hpu | hkam | stan rgyag | dze | hnam | hte | hśah | hcag | rgyag | [84] hris | dze | hno sto | ge | rdo | re | cis | tsha | hbyihi | hrie | smyi | rmad | ge | hmo 5 rkah | lda | [85] dze | hno | sto | ge | hsag3 | dze | rne | hwe | ge hwvir || hno sta glom dze kran nur nur [86] rne | sta | glan | dze | hne | rnehi | rnehi | gśań | sñań | do | na | rgyań | na | spe | htsog | hram | hdo | na | [87] mor | hldan | re | hnah || hldi | rgved | hrar | heog | hram | hdo || rgved | hdre4 | hte | ge | [88] heog | hdo | dze | hwad | hdim | htshis | hltom | re | htso | hldan | stan | gdim | pvi | [89] hse | ge | gsom | rgyag | hsor | don | htshog | 15 me | hldvim | rgvan | 5gdim | phyi | bse | ge | [90] htshog | hram | hñad ||

⁵gdim | phyi | hse | ge | [90] htshog | hram | hñad || rgyed | ma | hldañ | ge | htsog | hram | hŝah || rta | htsog | hram | [91] ge | htah | rwye | htah || rta | sko | prom | re | hrtah | hldañ | hkrañ ||

20 htsog | rpu | śe | chań | [92] pyi | hse | hthoń || hkor | htah | hkhen | yań | sñań | gyań | gyań⁶ | hjah | htah | hkhen | yań | [93] swa | tseg | tseg ||

rgyed | ma | hltan | ge ||

rta | bgam | bphar | re | bsus | slo | glo |

10ddyim | phyi ||11 [96] hse | ge | htsog | htan | ma | te | na | ge |
30 hbyin | 'kya | htan | ta | htor | 'rgor¹² | hyos | [97] hbom¹³ | byin |
'hbar | hban | thwan | byin || rwer | hmo | hchah | byin | 'htsog |
hram | myin | [98] 'rgor | hyos | hbar | thwan | hkhor | kyan |
rwehi | re |

hmo | cha | byi | na | phyi14 | hse | myi | [99]

Correction below line from hlta.

Read hge in place of ha | ge.

htre?

htre?

htre?

htre?

mhere crossed out.

htre? (correction from hrta). Read hdre-hte-ge (metre).

Some commencement here crossed out.

¹¹ Erroneous punctuation (end of line).

¹² Correction, underline, from rgyor.
14 hphyi? Correction from cha.
15

The state of the s	
rgyed ma glan ge hnah¹ htsog hśah	
rta hgam hphar² gsus slo stah [100]	
gdim hdzam hdzim³ re hko wehi htuhu	
rta hso hnah ge na rom hton [101] re hlan hjan	
	5
rgyed ma [102] hldan 5 ge ⁶ nah htsog hśas	
rgyed ma [102] man ge man man	
hsad mag hdehi dze hśi kyeg mye	
rbyo sñan² ge [103] ⁸ sñan na rgon ru ge hru	
the kyen hldug ha rta ⁹ hso hna ma ran hdram [104]	0.5
hmu hdon htor sku hphu hti 'hldi hgan nan re hnag	10
htshab hkah hran 'rgyed [105] ma hldan ge 10 hkah hcog	
byin ta10 'rgyed htso dro ho hkah hgo byin ta 'rgyed	
hgo hdro hkah hkhab byin [106] ta 'rgyed hkab hdro	
hkah khab ¹¹ byin tah 'rgyed hkhāb hdro hkho hphyag ¹²	
hkhohu re [107] hran hwar rders hdi na na hrom hkob	15
hkhohu re [107] hran hwar rders hdt ha ha hoo hoo	140
'hlan hjan hkhog 'rgyed ma [108] hldan ge hso hnah	
hrgah 1mo lan 13 byu re hldi hdah ma ge hno bro hrub	
[109] re myag gre skyan bjim li li re pa la la ge tho	
rgvam ge hwad re [110] spyi hdze ge hkab	
rta hgam hphar re hso hnah hldoho	20
hro hbehi hbah ge [111] hso hnah gcheg	
hso hnah hyah tse gtah hbom rbo	
hbom rbo ¹⁴ phan dze hldan [112] hkran hnar re	1
phom roos phan dze pidan [112] paran phar 10	8
hbom rbo hldah	rich.
hmah hldan hyah dze rgyed hldag hnag [113] ge	
hldan kran hrwehi	350
hnah hpon hgor re hgu htor htsu : na	25
gtse ne rgad [114] re hrah rtah hkyan na	
dgu hldo htor ge su me hmehi	
hrah we rtah ge so [115] hnah mehi	
hran hche hju ¹⁵ ge hcah htso htsah	
hpo hldi nan re hyah hnehi [116] hnahd	30
hpo hidi nan re hyan hieti [110] thinto	
hsas te khyan je ¹⁶ hsas hkhah ge ¹⁷ hrwehi ¹⁸	
¹ Sic (for hhah? cf. l. 102).	
sl here crossed out: read hphar-re? (cf. l. 110).	
hjim hjim ? hdzam hdzam ? hpro here crossed out. Punctuation reinforced. hna here crossed out.	
A TOTAL PROPERTY AND ADDRESS OF THE PARTY AND	
Read beta in place of ha rta. 10 hkah ta added below line.	
11 Corrected from hkhab. 12 Cf. l. 101.	
13 Or hin? (a correction). 14 rbo added below line.	
¹⁵ Sic (= hzu, l. 117). ¹⁶ Read dze.	
17 Erroneous punctuation. 18 Punctuation reinforced.	

```
rnol mu rgveb re hran pu glo [117] re
       ran | hche | hzu2 | hran | hkah | khar | gsom |3
       hpho | hldir | htsag | ge | so | hna | hstor [118]
        hrtah | hgam | hkom | re | stor | mon | hjon ||4
       rtah | hgam | hphar | can | stor | hdor | [119] hyoho ||
  hrta | htsog | hram | yan |
       hno | stor | ha5 | hton | re | hrne | hldan | hkhved | [120]
       htsog | hram | phye | dze | hśań | plim | plam6 |
       htsog | hram | hnah | tse | htor | śi | rgo<sup>7</sup> || [121]
        htsog | hram | myag | dze | hrta | hwa | hldan |
10
        htsog | hram | hme | dze | htor | htas | [122] hproms |
        htsog | hram | hpo | dze | hrta | rkwa | hdzam |
       htsog | hram | hreg | dze | hldyań8 | [123] hyu | hgań | dze |
                                               hśi hwa hko
15 hrta | htsog | hram | van |
        stor | me | hkhyed | re | hldan | [124] me | hkhyed ||
        htor | h<sup>9</sup>rta | rme | ge | hldan | kran | hkun || na |
        hldan | hkran | hsad | na | hldan [125] hkran | hsah |
        hldan | kran | hwe | dze | hldan | slah | hkehe |
        hldan | kran | hko | dze | stor | [126] hldan | hphyar |
20
        hldan | kran | spo | dze | stor | hgu | hbo ||
       hldan | kran | hnam | dze | stor | [127] dgu | hdor 10 | | |
   hrtah | hldan | kran | van |
       hno | stor | hkhyed | re | hrne | hldan | hkhran |
        so | [128] hnah | hstor | dze | hno | stor | hprom ||
25
       hkhar | hrpag | g-yar11 | stor | mon | hjon | re || [129]
        re | hmon | hjon | re | hldag | gnag | hkhoho ||
        g-wah | hram | myer | re | hldag | nag | [130] swehe |
        h12than | rdzo | hnor13 | hldag | nag | htshors ||
       hthan | phu | hkam | ge | rne | [131] hbye | hkwehe | ge |
30
          14hthan | hgam | hrnehe |
        hthan | le | htsa | ge | hthan | [132] hgam | hkre | 15
        hthan | rdzo | hnor16 | hldag | nag | tho ||
     1 rho over h (a blur): possibly hho or hjo was intended.
     2 Sic (= hju, l. 115).
                                           3 A correction (of gsum ?).
     4 Punctuation reinforced.
                                           Sic : omit ha.
     6 plim-plam? Corrected below line from phyim | pyam.
               A correction (of hltan?).
                                                      * 1 here crossed out.
     10 do a correction?
                                    11 = g-yar-re or g-ya-re? Cf. l. 136.
                                               11 = hno-re?
     15 w here crossed out.
                                                15 he | here crossed out.
     14 hldag | nag here crossed out.
     16 = hno-re?
```

```
hbri | hldi | hthan | re | hre | hldi | [133] hyah |
    ¹hldi | hthan | re | rgyeb | hldi | hthan | ra |²
    hthan | hrgam | hkad | re | rne | re | hno || [134]
    dgu | sko | hldon | re | hkhog | hnon | hdzom hi |
    re | hmon | hyog | re | hldag | nag | htsors3 [135]
                                                                             5
     hran | pu | hlo | ge | gsehe | hldi | hthon | re | hldag | nag |
       hkrag
     hkhar |4 rpag<sup>5</sup> || [136] | g-yar | re | hldag<sup>6</sup> | hgrom |
     gldag | nag | g-yah | dze | rgyad | kyer | rbo | dze |
                                           gtse | hkom | re | tsan | [137]
     hbri | re | hrdyam | re | hkhah | hldah | hnahghi ||
                                                                             10
     hdzohu | ro | hldi | re | hjohu<sup>7</sup> || hwa | hkah |<sup>8</sup> [138]
     hdzehu | rje | hbro | re | hdzohu | hto | hrun |
     stor | rje | hbro | re | stor | hto | hrun |
     ldan | rdze [139] hbro | re | hldan | the | rgyebs ||
     dgu | Ido | htor | ge | stor | mon | h10dzon |
                                                                             15
     hrah | wehi | rta | ge | [140] stor | mon | hdz<sup>11</sup>on ||
     ldyo stor | hthu | re | hdrab | stor | htoho |
hñi stor spehi
     hpu | [141] hpos | stor | dze | hkyan | stor | rno<sup>12</sup> ||
                                                                             20
     hsah | yer | hldan | dze | hrne | hldan | ne |
     mor | [142] gdag | hgom | re | hdzań | hldog | stor |
     mor | gdag | hphar | re | stor | hdor | g-yoho | [143]
     na | hldom | hgor | 13 kla | hkyań 14 | gstor |
     htor | se | stor | dze | hldan | pyi | ske ||
                                                                             25
     hno | stor [144] hsans | dze | mo | ma | hthor |
     hrne | hldan | hnas<sup>15</sup> | dze | hldi | ma<sup>16</sup> | hrtah ||<sup>17</sup>
hldyan | htah | hbo18 | [145] kyer | mag | hnor | su | ge | stor | ta |
hthogs
     phye | hgo | hthun | re | hnam | hdzam | [146] htar |
   1 Insert hyah (a regular antithesis to rgyeb)?
  2 ni here crossed out: replaced by the ra (below line).
                                          4 1 here crossed out (h intended?).
   3 s below line.
                                                 " Insert mag?
   5 re here crossed out.
  1 hum? Or is the dot over hu meant to indicate an error? Punctuation
erroneous.
   * h below line.
   rto (a first correction of to?) here crossed out. The to was then written.
                                      11 dz written after to (crossed out).
   10 to here crossed out.
                                              13 h here crossed out.
   12 Correction (of rhu ?).
                                                       15 Read hsans ?
   14 Insert here hrgyan, as in L. 42.
                                               17 Punctuation reinforced.
   16 ma: added below line.
   18 Some fragment of an akṣara here crossed out.
```

384 TEXT: LINES 147-162 hrah | hton | rmag | dze | hdrag | htrog | htsa || ¹rñe | hne | hrmag | dze | hmań [147] byi | hldoň | hyu | sad | ge | hphom | te | hdran | ge | hsad | na2 | hran | rgyan | hśod | te | rmag3 [148] dze | rman | ra | gyim | spye | htor | hdwa | dze | myag | myi | 4 5 tor | htas | prom | dze | myage | [149] me | htan | rgyed | rmag | rne | ge | stor | tha | hthogni | hrah snin ne ge stor ta hthog ni [150] hldyan | hpu | hbri | re | mehi | klu | hcha | ge | stor | htah | htoni || hkyer | re | cig | dze | [151] hphah | hphog | ge | hkarni || nor | gso 10 hkan | prom | re | śid | rgyan | hnom | re | mehi | spa [152] rgyan ge | stor | ta | htoni | | g-we | hku | rno | re | g-yah | htsa | ne | ge | gstor | ta | hthon | hke | [153] hkah | ñes | re | ske | hbrus | hgyań ni | myi | re | hti | ni | myi5 | hśi || 15 myi | rgve | mver6 | hchos | [154] hvo | hio7 | hti | rgye | mye | dze | hgye | hkrom | hkrom || hlo | ge | blah | hldoh | ge | na | [155] rne | ne | mehi | hgab | hldo | ge | rke | hldah | hrdan | śid | rgyań | hre | ge | hwam | hnom | [156] śon | 20 rma | g-yog | rno | ge | hjim | ta | hthusni | rman | bri | hko | ge | g-yah | ta | mehi | na | rog | [157] hphar | ge | skye | ta | ram | hpu | hbron | rkom | ge | glo | ta | rdzogs || *hldan | hwe | ge | g-ri | [158] ta | gron || 25 hkehe | hkah | ñes | re | ske9 | hbro | hgyan || chos | ta | nan | re | hde | ta | rgyen | [159] hlab | ta | hwen || hnah | hchos | hre | ge | hldan | myi | śeg | spye | chos | hre | ge | gtsan [160] myi | hrgan | śi | hchos | re | ge | hpu | myi | hldin || 30 sñan | ne | thehe | yan | stor | dor | yon | [161] hldyan | hpu | hbri | 10 re | mehi | klu | heah | yan | stor | hdor | hvon

kyu | ldon | rno | re | [162] kya | wa | ne | yan | stor | hdor |

hyon ||

¹ The passage r\(\tilde{n}\) ehta\(\tilde{n}\) (l. 149) was probably in verse: it may have been affected by omissions of duplicate, or quasi-duplicate, words. See pp. 299 sqq. ² na added below line. ² g added below line.

⁴ sh (for st !) here crossed out.

^{*} Insert re ?

Thrho ?

Read mye-re or myer-re?
 A syllable missing here or after hldan? Kran?

Underline correction from ste: cf. l. 153.
 van here crossed out.

```
hldyo | hdom | nag | re | hdrab | hwa | hran | yan | [163] stor |
       hdor | hyon |
    hbri | hśehe | hpur | hse | sri | hbodrag1 |
    hkhah | hldan | hnore2 | tsa [164] chah3 | hkanhi | |
    hrtah | swah | g-wer4 | | hbos | hsah | hldah | ha5 |
    hbos | [165] hnom | hsah<sup>6</sup> | gtsan | hrgu | ma | gzo ||
                                                                            5
    khru | hrkah | myi | hrdoho | hrnab | ma | hldah |
    hsah | chad | [166] rmur<sup>7</sup> | hkohu | prom | g-yehe ||
    hsah | yob | hkom | re | hran | hrah | htsuhu ||
    rtah | hscah<sup>8</sup> | [167] g-yer | dze | stor | hto | hruhi | ge | hran |
      hrah | hdehi ||
   htor | bhphu | hbos | ge | hbyi | [168] hri | hgan | ge |
                                                                            10
   chi | hrmu | hphor || re | hkohu | bprom | hto |
   htor | sñin | hkan | ge | [169] hkohu | hprom || hrgah || dze |
   hrgom | hkhrur<sup>9</sup> | hto | na | hrpehi | hrgam | re | hto |
   hdro | [170] hbron | prom | ge | hkohi | me | htul ||
   hban | hldah | hne | ge | hkehu | me | hdzah | [171]
                                                                            15
   hldyo | hdom | hnag | re | hkohu | hphrom | hto | na |
   sli | hti | hrnor10 | hkohu | mehe | [172] hldyo |||
   hdrab | hwah | hran | hran | re | hkohu | phrom | hto | na |
   hrwad | hban | prom | [173] yan | hkohu | me | hdrab | na |
   klag | hrwad | hdzur<sup>11</sup> | hwi | hwehi | htsag |
                                                                            20
   rta | swah<sup>12</sup> | mor<sup>13</sup> [174] hkohu | prom | hto | na |
   tor | dro | hño | ge | hnu | glan | slog |
   rtahi | swa | hldir<sup>14</sup> | <sup>15</sup>nu<sup>16</sup> | [175] glan | <sup>17</sup>hldon<sup>18</sup> ||
   rta | swa | 19 hkom | re | hnu | glan | hpor | na | mu | hldi | hmo |
      [176] na
   hrtah | swa | hphyegs | na | kehu | prom | hbres || don |
                                                                            25
   nu | glan | hrgyan | ge | hke | prom<sup>20</sup> | glan | [177] na ||
1 rag ?: h added below line: bbohg may have been intended?
```

```
Or read hner (correction of hnor)?
```

* Read g-we-re?

Correction of apparent hmah.

htah here crossed out, the double punctuation unintentionally left.

pu here crossed out: the h unintentionally left.

Read rmu-re? rmur is not found elsewhere. 8 hstsah? * Read hkhru-re? hkhrur is not found elsewhere.

¹⁰ Read hrho-re? hrhor and rhor occur only in this way: cf. Il. 289, 322, 339. 11 Read hdzur-re? 13 h below line.

¹³ Read mor-re

¹⁴ h added below line. 15 Corrected from hnu. 16 Read hldir-re or hldi-re? 17 hto here crossed out. 18 n an addition.

¹⁹ hldir here crossed out. 20 prom an addition, below line.

htor | hdro | hño | ge | rhe | hpo | hldo | ge | hkehu | prom | hjo | na hkohu | prom¹ | bžer | na | kehu | [178] hkah | rwan || na | ²hldyan | hyan | hyo | na | ldyan | hkah | rwan | ste | hkehu | prom | dze | gsom [179] wa | hyo || hnu | glan | rno | dze | gsom | wa | g-yo || 5 hldyan | yan | hyo | na | gnah | gon | myag | [180] ste | hkohu | bprom | yan | ldyan3 | glab | hdo || de | nas | rabs | bgyis | gsan | hldi | hlab | [181] rbyo | po | nan | gsan | hśeg | hlab | dze | rbyo4 | hpro | hro | grtehe | 10 hta | stel | re | hlab | ta | gbohu [182] ste | ge | hthogs | re | hlab | ge | plan | na | hbron | hldah | hdzam | re | hrah | rte⁵ | hdubna [183] hdzu6 | hdro | hphor7 | hchi | hdo | dyan | na | bsog | thom | thom | dze | hpu | ge | me | hmuhi | [184] hram | hkan | hkan | dze | hphage | me | hsam | 15 hdihi | mag | hnor⁵ | ma⁹ | hpu | mu | re | [185] ma | hpah | hsam | htah | hśud | hdon | rgyag | dze | htor | hdo | hchun | hta | śud | mehi | [186] dze | hrtah | hjam | ge | hmehi ||| hldyan | g-ri | gdod10 | re | mehi | hrah | gtan | cig | dze | htor 11 | [187] hldam | re | hldan | 12 20 htor | hkhru | rgyan | re | hrta | hpa | hphar | hñi | htor | hldam13 | [188] re | hldan | ha | 14|kyan | hzu | hrno | re | hna 15 | hdro | mo | cig | dze | tor | hldam | re [189] hldan || hśo | hkog | rno ||16 re | hnan | hdro | hmo || 25 stor | hkho | hrho | re | hnan | hdro | [190] thar | hmor¹⁷ | hzah | re | hse | spye | khyan || rgyeb | hphuhi | hton | re | hyah | wa | hkan | [191] rnam18 | skar | hkah | re | gdah | hnah | hgam || dgu | hldo | htor | re | hra | we | rtah | [192] 30 rgved | hran | sme | re | hkhar | hgyi | ñes ||

2 h added below line. 1 prom added below line. * rbyo added below line. 2 ldvan added below line. 4 In Il. 352-3 hdzu and gzu. * In 1. 354 the manuscript has brtre. * Read hpho-re or hphor-re ? Cf. L. 353. 8 Read hno-re ? Read hpho-re or hphor-re: Of a correction (of r?). If Read hto-re Correction of myi? 10 d a correction (of r?). 11 Read hto-re? 13 Corrected from || or || reinforced? 18 Read hnan ? 14 kyan here crossed out: read hlkyan? 16 Punctuation erroneous. 18 jam ?

¹⁷ Read hmo-re or hmor-re? Cf. L. 192.

Times and and	
cig dze htor hldam re mor re hkar rpag re ¹	
kyanni [193]	
hnah htsu rpag re hnah mo hgam	
hnah mo hr²pag ³gso nad hgam	
[194] gso nad rpag re hkah hgan hjor	5
hrdzoń hyo hśi dze ste gdzu ge cig ⁴ lol	
[195] hke plan hdrah dze hthar mye ge lol	
hldihi su hldon ⁵ dze hlda hko ge hdzon [196] rma hsu hdra dze hwam wehi ge tswehu	
hno stor hthore bsi ta ston	10
rhe [197] hldan hkhar [†] hmye htah rgyen	10
mu hrog htro re rman hldab g-we	
stor thon [198] bśi re hldan hkhan g-we	
hro ta śodee ⁸ re hwar ta rgyeni ⁹	
	15
hśań nag rgyes hkom chim hldim ge hphah rmań rgyah ¹⁰	
gñi ke ge [200] g-yog hldah gse ge spehi hdzań hgyań	
hce hmu gdag re rne he hrehi na [201] rman na g-we he l	
hso hldah hgor re hwi wa rman	
trog hjo rñe dze pyi rjes [202] ne ¹¹ hcer	20
rman bri ko ge hcha ¹² hru hrdyan	
hrah hmad hñe nag ge hko [203] hldah hse hswad	
cha hru hwars ge hbri hko ¹³ hltah	
śor ¹⁴ hlda [204] hkar re pyu phya hdam	
hche hmu 15gdag re gsan hkah hrehi	25
pun te gsar nar [205] hpah rmag hcihi	
gse re ḥraṅ klar ḥdzoṅ skyar ḥreḥi	
na g-we hkor [206] kla gsan rman re rman na g-we	
hee hmu gdag re rnye ne ¹⁶ hnohu	
tshu gsom ¹⁷ [207] śud re rman na g-we re g-we	30
the then hldi bàir hkah hgan htsur [208]	
18hkan heig rpag re htshar hde hpyedhi	
rsehi hrgod hphyed re hphyu [209] hldyan hgyehi	
1 rpag re added below line: to be inserted here? 2 Something here crossed out. 3 Insert re?	
 Something here crossed out. cig added below line, probably to replace lol: cf. l. 356. 	
* Punctuation erroneous?	
[†] Read hkhar-re or hkha-re ? * sodtsa ? 9 = rgyen-ni. 10 rgyah added below line. 11 rman here crossed out.	
10 rgyah added below line. 11 rman here crossed out. 12 cha added below line. 13 hdam here crossed out.	
14 A correction (of ror?). 15 g added below line.	
14 rnye ne (rjye?) inserted below line. 17 m below line.	
18 h here crossed out.	

hkho | hśań | hgor1 | hnom | ta | hprom | na | hldan | rgye | hdor | re | [210] hwan | ta | hnen | hcan | rgye | rpag | re | hmo | ta | hpun || hdyan | hto | hton | ge | hgo | [211] gton | mod | re | mye | hpahi | re | myi | hpehi | hkhihi2 | rog | hii | rdan | ge | [212] hko | hton | modhi | khyos | hkhyan | hyu | ge | mye | hpehi | hkhehi || hkvan3 | hgo | [213] hro | ge | hbos | hdom | hrjihi || hbehi | tyan | rdehe | ge | 4hstsah | hbrad | [214] hrdaghi || hkah | gsan | hran | re | hrwehi | gtsu | ge | hrnas | 10 kyu | hldon | hrno | [215] re | hkya | wa | ñe | re | htshu | to | hphan | | || htor | hñi | htsa | ge | htor | hbron | [216] hkhoho || hldi | hrgyed | hrah | htor | hbron | hkhoho || hldi | hrgyed | hrar⁶ | tor | [217] hbron | hgyan | htor | hbron | hkho8 | dze | htor | hkho | dze | | kho9 | sñe | ge | 15 [218] hldyan | hpu | hbri | re | hmehi | klu | hcah || 10 dze | htor | hkho | ge | hkhohi || htan | [219] hrdzo | hnor | htor | hbron | htsors | hthan12 | le | tshah | dze | tor | sñi | rgam | [220] hthan | le | tsa | ge | thor | hbron | tshor | na | 20 than | rdzo | hkyud | na | hbron | hdru | hjar | [221] hthan | hgam | hrdzur | re | hbron | hkru | hbro | na || hyah | hklu¹³ | hbro | re | hgyeb | [222] hkru | hbro | re | hyah | htah | hthan na | : | hrta | swa | gkom | re | htor | hbron | [223] hgrom || 25 htor | hbron | hgrom | re | hton | hkon | hbye14 || htor | hbron | hrpag | re | [224] hwah | hrsan | hlamhi | g-wah | hrśań | hnar | 15 hrkwa | hdzam | htronhi | [225] dgu | hmu | htor16 | hśań | hlad | hbyamna | hrah | hldi17 | hnan | re | hrsan | lad | hlamhi | 30 mor | [226] hgu | hrdzor18 | hrśań | lad | hlamhi || hyan | hrah | hsan | re | hśan | hlad | hlamhi | [227]

² Sic (for hkhehi, as in l. 212?). 1 Read hgo-re or hgor-re? 4 mye here crossed out. hkyan? Correction, below line, of hwan. Read hrah-re? hnas? Correction of hkornas. ge here crossed out. 7 hko here crossed out. Or khwo? (a correction). 10 Punctuation erroneous. 12 Correction, below line, of hphan. 11 Read hino-re. 14 hpye? hphye? 13 Probably hkru. 16 Read hto-re? Cf. II. 236, 244. 15 Read hnar-re? Cf. l. 233. 18 Read hrdzo-re? 17 hldi added below line.

```
mug | hgu | rdzor1 | hśań | hlad | hlamhi |
   htham | rah | gsan | re | hśan | hlad | [228] hlambi |
   hbri | hgu | rdzor² | hwa | hrśań | hlamhi |
   brah | hrah | gsan | re | hwah<sup>3</sup> | glah<sup>4</sup> | [229] brśan | hgam |
     lambi |
   sñan | ñe | hldir | hgwah | hrśan | hlamhi |
                                                                         5
   rñe | hkhyam | hldyañ | dze | [230]6 rñe | ge | hlad | hi ||
   hwa | bžer | hśid | re | hrtah | hurañ | glyañ |
   hwa | bžer | [231] hrpag | re | rñe | blad | byamna ||
   rgyed | ma | bldan | ge | bso | bnah | brgah ||
   htor | [232] hrta | rme | ge | hso | hnah | stor ||
                                                                         10
   hdzań | hglah | hnag | dze | rñe | hlad | ge | hlam |
   gah8 | [233] glah | hlad | hnar9 | hkhab | h10gro | htron ||
   hdzań | gla | hnag | dze | hchir | htsah<sup>11</sup> | sto | [234]
   htsag | hro | hbehi | hbar | hso | hnah | geeg |
   hdzań | hglah<sup>12</sup> | nag | ge | hbehi | hbah | [235] htog |
                                                                         15
   hbe | hbah | hnah | sto | hso | hnah | rman | dze | htoho |
   rñe | lad | thor | dze | ca | [236] yan | htor |
   dguhu | hmu | to | re | hrah | hldi | nan | re | h | glah 13 | hlad |
     hlamna14 | [237]
   hldi | rgved | hrar | 15 hgla | hlad | hbyamna | |
   rñe | hkhyam | hldyan | re | | 16 rñe | ge | hlad | hi | [238]
                                                                         20
   gse | bbo17 | bon | re | blad | mah | mahna18 |
   hsehe | hldu | hru | re | dze | hphag | hbah | [239] ge | hyor ||
   hcha | hgrah | nu | nar 19 | dze | 20 hkhab | hgro | ge | hkahi | |
   <sup>21</sup>rñe | hlad | [240]<sup>22</sup> rpag | re | gse | hlda | hlad | hlamhi |
   gse | hlad | htor | dze | hcah | [241] hyan | hbro | na ||
                                                                         25
   hno | rgam | kho | re | smyi | hnu23 | hgyans |
   smyi | hnu | mye | re | tha | hnu | [242] hrgyan | sto | smyi |
     hnu | hto |
   gse | hlad | thor | dze | hchah | yan | thor |
                                                3 h added below line.
1 Read rdzo-re?
                        Read rdzo-re?
```

```
a here crossed out.
* h added below line.
                             5 Read hldi-re ?
                             8 gah perhaps a faulty anticipation of glah.
7 Read bran.
                                            10 b here crossed out.
* Read hnar-re ? Cf. 1. 224.
11 A correction (of htshar).
                                              13 h added below line.
                                                     14 n below line.
13 Read hglah (for h | glah).
                                                     16 Sic (for I).
15 rgya here crossed out. Read hrah-re?
                                            18 na added below line.
17 Corrected from n.
19 nu | nar, below line, correction of hdzu | hdzah.
                                           il k here crossed out.
<sup>20</sup> Punctuation reinforced.
11 hlamhi here crossed out.
                                      23 nu underline correction (of di).
```

```
gse | hlad | [243] hnar<sup>1</sup> | hkhab | gro | htronhi ||
       hldi | hrgyed | hrar² | gse | hbo | hbon | hlad | ma | mahna |
       dguḥu | mu | hto | re | hraḥ | hldi | hnaṅ | re | gse | hlad |
          hbyamna |
        gse | lad | [245] rpag | re | hpro | hbo | hbon ||<sup>3</sup> re | hlad | ma |
          ma | hna |
        dgu | hmu | htor4 | hpro | [246] hbo5 | hbon6 | hrah | hldi |
5
          hnanra | hlad | ma | mahna |
        hldi | hrgyed | hrar<sup>7</sup> | hpro | hbo | [247] hbon | re | hlad | ma |
          hman8
        gse | stoň | stsar | re | hlad | htoň | myen |
        heam | [248] hjam9 | htam | hldir10 | gse | htah | hdam | na ||
        hldi | rgyed | h<sup>11</sup>rar | rgyed | htre | hte | [249] ge | gse | hśo |
           hkon | | :: |
10 htsa<sup>12</sup> | re | hldah | ge | hra | hyan | phyir<sup>13</sup> | | <sup>14</sup>ban | hrehe | [250]
   hrpod | bbos | re15 | bbron | re | ge | rmo | bkum | bceg |
        hltah16 | hstsah17 | hyer | ge [251] hno | hkhog | hlto | ge |
        hban | hrehe | hkhehe | hban | hre | hgehe | na |
        jo | re | h18gehe | [252] re | hlab | re | hge |
        sta | re | mo | ge | sta | g-ri | hban |
15
        sta | ban | rpag | re | hyah<sup>19</sup> | [253] me | bbyam | re |
        jo | me | hbyam | re | hlab | me | hbyam | na || : ||
        hban | hldon | hrpag [254] re | hldan | phyer | hbrahr<sup>20</sup>
                                                 hldvo | htor | hmyi | na |
        hyog | hprah | hdag | dze | hdrań | [255] re | hphrah |
20
         sśam | stom | hdag | dze | hsar | stomhi |
         hśań | hdzah | hldyim | hyań<sup>21</sup> | [256] ldyohu | ma | hbyohu |
         rgam | hgah | hkan | hyan | hrag | ma | hbog ||
         htas | kro | hldon [257] re | hyah | rmah | htsagna |
         htor | htas | prom | hrom | nehu | hso | bos |
25
      1 Read hnar-re?
                                       <sup>2</sup> = hrah-re? Cf. l. 246.
                                           * Read hto-re?: cf. ll. 225, 236, 244.
      <sup>2</sup> Sic: erroneous punctuation.
                                                             Insert ro?
      h here crossed out and replaced by |.
                                                             * Sic (for mahna).
      7 rahr?: h added below line. Cf. U. 243, 248.
                                                          10 Read hldi-re?
      hjam marked for omission.
      11 h a corrector's addition: read hrah-re? Cf. Il. 243, 246.
                                              13 Correction from phyer.
      11 A correction of hrtsa or htso.
      14 m here crossed out.
                                   15 re a correction of a badly written r.
      14 m here crossed out.
16 rta added here below line (and then crossed out?).
18 h inked over.
                                                  20 Read hbrah-re?
      19 mye here crossed out.
      21 Underline correction of hyam: a yan also is here crossed out.
```

hno [258] stor dze hwam nehu hkah ¹ mna	
hrta wa hdan dze hno hdan prom	
se rgo [259] hldom dze hpah hrgam hnam	
hkhwi htsa hyog hdag ci hran [260] hdrom² gdes	
hsas hdrah hdag chi hgo hsor re hyun	5
hsas [261] hnah hdag chi phyer chan hson	
g-rub hgoho hdag ci twan mnar [262] hsogna	
gsas pahi hdzo hdza can sme hme hkehi	
gsas pan ndzo ndza can sme tme tacti g-rah nag [263] hbo gyan chan ³ rdzum me g-wehi	
g-rah nag [203] hoo gyan chan ruzum me g-wen	10
gsan ra gsan kya [201] gotti masta r	
hno ra hno kya hno hdzam re hldan	
gśań [265] ra gśańna ge gśań tah hrtehu	
hno ra hnon ⁵ kya hnon ta gblan [266]	
6trog htor hte dze hbyim ge g-yaha ⁷	
hpu hbos hyah ge hdro [267] hko hnag	15
hsah hyer hyah ge hkog hkho rno	
hpra hre ⁸ hyah (ge) [268] hwad ⁹ hldan kran	
hkyan hrgyan hyah ge hmu klag gśim 10	
htsah [269] hdzań hvah ge hwah ne hbrah	
smvi glog g-yah ge 11 hwah hrho hjam hma	20
19701 bso hnah hvah ge hbah hbom rbo	
hwah hldanra htsanra na hwa [271] rgya hrko hrkabs	
htor hrtah g-yah ge hldyan ma g-yehi	
hldvan pah [272] hro re hmehi hpah hyah	
bko hrno h ¹² vah ge rgya rko rkabs [273]	25
gśań hrah htoń kva hnohol3 hjam re hidan	
hwi hwa se kvah [274] hkvan hdzam re hldan	
hldyim bste hpuhi ge rne hdzam re hldan [275]	
hldanha ¹⁴ gsom hphahha ¹⁵ ge twan hdzam nehe	
hno re hlo ge hkyi [276] hdzam hphuhi	30
hsu re 16 hru ge g-rah hdzam nag	
gsah re [277] htsah re hrah ge hldohu hjam rno	
hkor re hpah ge hśam [278] hdzam nag	
rta hwa hldan ra hldah htag htos	
gśań ra [279] gśań ge¹7 gśań htag htos	35
gsatt ra [210] gsatt go 8-sat 48 41	
1 h added below line. 2 hdom? A correction (of hgrom?).	
sme g-wehi here crossed out. n added below time.	
* For hho na? h or s (?) here crossed out.	
g-yarka : remops g-yan and management,	
13 we have expessed out 13 ho crossed out?	
14 h added below line. 18 Sic. 18 Sic. 17 Sic (for kyn!).	

```
bho | rah | hho | kya1 | hho | htag | [280] hton(a) ||
        gnah | ma | dwan | dze | hkhab | rgye | ge | hthwan ||
        mvag | ma2 | htsar | dze | hbo | [281] hram | ge | hśod | tsa |
        hldyan | ma | gnah | dze | stom | hkan | ge | hnan |
        [282] htsag3 na | na | hldyan | rgyeb4 | hpuhi | hpuhi ||
 5
        hśeg | sme | ge | brim | hdzom [283] hpań | tsa | ge |
        hgah | hrag | re | hgah | rag | hdah | ta | hbogni<sup>5</sup> |
        seg | [284] sme | ge | hrim | hdzom | re | hrim | hdzom | htah |
           hldun | tsu | re | [285] hldah | htag | hto(na) ||
        brkom6 | bbron | hkrur7 | bdzan | bsyah | 19 [286] hthan | |
10
        10rpehi | bldah | brgam | re | bldog | byah | bthan
        mor | [287] hkyan | hldon | re | hbos11 | g-vah | hthan12 ||
        hyan | hkah | rdzar<sup>13</sup> | [288] hstsah<sup>14</sup> | hyah | ht(h)an |
        hrlehi | hswah | hram | re | 15hsli | hdzan | hthan 16 [289]
        hkru | hyog | rnor17 | hgar | hpu | hthan ||
15
        rta | hgam | hpar | re | [290] hso | hnah | hthan ||
        hyan | 18hkah19 | rdzar20 | h21stsah | hrihi | hpan ||
        hbos | g-ri | [291] hpan | 22 dze | hkyan | hldon | re | hnah | |
        hbos | hrihi | hkhoho | dze | hrgyah | hñi | hkehe |
        htsah | por<sup>23</sup> | [292] dze | hrne | hkham | ge | hrgveg | | dze |
20
        htab | hkhohu | hkhohu || ge | hkyan | hldon | bgyan | sto |
        hkyań | [293] hldoń | hkhor²4 | hbos | hrihi | hruhu ||
        htor | hpuhu | hbos | dze | hrim | ge | hgrus |
        hkyań | [294] hldoń | hkhor<sup>25</sup> | hbos | hyah | hto | na |
        hrihi | hdom | hkvim | re | hri | hkruhu | hbroho ||
25
   [295] hstsah | bri | bkho | dze<sup>26</sup> || brgva | hñi | bkahe<sup>27</sup>
   htsa | phor | dze | hno | hkho | hsog | ge | hdzom | dze
   htab | [296] hkhohu | hkhohu | ge | hkhahh<sup>28</sup> | hrdza | hdze | hgvan |
   na
        hkah | hrdza | hkhor | hswah | g-ri | hto | na |
30
     Correction (of kyan).
                                                  m an insertion.
     g below line: htsa | gna intended ?
                                                       4 b inked over.
     hbogni?, the n an insertion.
                                           Corrected, below line, from hklom.
     7 Read hkru-re?
                                                  " w here crossed out.
     Punctuation erroneous (end of line).
                                                       10 sp here crossed out.
     11 Correction from hldog.
                                     12 h, h and th crossed out or corrected?
     <sup>13</sup> Read rdza-re? Cf. U. 290, 296.
                                                 14 Correction from harad.
     18 Some sign crossed out before ali.
                                                      n below line.
     17 Read rho-re; cf. U. 171, 322, 339.
                                                      18 h here crossed out.
     19 h below line.
                                                20 Read rdza-re? Cf. 1. 287.
     21 ta (or c) here crossed out.
                                                     22 r (?) here crossed out.
     23 Read po-re: cf. l. 295.
                                          24 Read hkhor-re?
     25 Read hkhor-re?
                                      24 dze crossed out?
     27 For hkeh? Cf. l. 53.
                                                 28 Sic.
```

```
hscah | [297] hver | hri | dze | hrim | ge | hgrus ||
     brihi | hdom | hkyim | re | brgyeb | hkru | hbro |
     rñehe | hbrom | hri | [298] dze | hrñi | hbos | stsah<sup>1</sup> ||
     rtah | hswah | g-wehe | hbos | hstsah | hldah ||
     hpus<sup>2</sup> | hphyah | myi | can | g-rihi | [299] hldom | hkam |
     hśe | hse | hldon | hcan | g-ri | sti | hyor | re |
     hri | hno | hdzon | g-yog | re | [300] rgyan | ge | hrihi | sti |
       hvor | re |
     hrim | hldohu | hśań | hyań | hri | hgru | gras | re | hri | hci
        [301] hwad3hi ||
     hrtah | swa | g-wer4 | g-ri | hrde | hldah ||
                                                                               10
     <sup>5</sup>rñe | ne | g-ri | dze | hldim | hphu | hman | [302]
     hman | hrihi | hphan | dze | hgah<sup>6</sup> | hldonra | hnah<sup>7</sup> | na |
     hrgyeg | hśiń<sup>8</sup> | hrńoho<sup>9</sup> | ge | hgah | [303] hldoń | <sup>10</sup>hkyud ||
     hrne | hldah | hror 11 | hman | hkhu | stan |
     hdom | hgu | htsuhu [304] hyan | hman | hldyo | hrgam |
     hdom | hgu | htsu | ge | hyah | hdad | hphah | na |
                                                                               15
     hman | rgam | [305] hgre | na | hrihi | hrgam | gre | he ||
     gdzu | hbyi | hnan | re | hman | nan | hyu ||
     hbrad | re | hpah | [306] yan | hman | ge | hrgam | hjihi ||
     hbrad | re | hpah | ge | hbrad | sta | hśid | re | hyah | hdahd |
[307] hnah | na | hman | na | hman | hrgam | gre | na | hram ||
                                                                               20
     h<sup>12</sup>glvan | hśe | ge | gzu | hbyi | hkyud | [308]
     gdzu | hbyi | hnań | re | hmań | hri | hwas ||
     hgā | hldon | hran | re | hman | g-ri | hpan | [309] na
     dgu | hldo | htor | ge | hman | g-rihi | hkun ||
     hmu | wa | rno | ge | hgah | [310] | hldon | hkyud ||
                                                                               25
     hgah | hldon | hran | re | hldim | hman | hto ||
     rne | hldah | hror<sup>13</sup> | [311] hman | sta | mehi ||
     gdzu | hbyi | hnan | re | hri | stah | mehi |
      hgah | hldon | hran | 14[312] g-rihi | sta | mehi |
      hdom | hguhu | rmar15 | hri | stah | mehi |
                                                                                30
      hjuhu | hbrad | rmar<sup>16</sup> | g-ri | sta | [313] mehi |
                                                na | g-ri | hkruhu | hbro ||
      hmor | hso | hbod17 | ge | hrkom | hkru | hsud | na |
  stanh added below line. hphus?
Read g-we-re. rgya here crossed out.
                                    2 hphus?
                                                   2 d added below line.
                                                         h below line.
   helow line (a correction of r).

helow line (a correction of r).

ra | hash || here crossed out, leaving ||.
                                                  is j or rn here crossed out.
   11 Read hro-re: cf. l. 310.

    Read hro-re: cf. l. 303.
    Read rma-re?
    Read rma-re?
    Insert re: cf. l. 308.
    Underline corrected from hbos.
```

```
gyan [314] g-ri | hjim | hno | hkhog | re | hphah ||
  g-rah | hsah | hkhehe | na | hnor | hdzań | rgo | [315] htoho |
  rgo | hrah | hnor | hdzań | hvah | htoho || hvah | htań | rmar
  hyah | [316] hkruhu | hbro | re | hrgyeb | hkruho<sup>1</sup> | hyan | hldyan
5 hkyer | ge | hldāh | hrgam | hstsag | [317] hldog | hpo | hrbom
  htoho || po | rbom | hnor | hldog | g-yah | to | dze | hwa | ne | hphe
  [318] hvah | htan | rmar | hvah | hkruhu | hbro | hldehi | hswah
  hmor | hsli | hdzań | ldyońo² | [319] rgya | hñi | hke | hldehi | swah
   rśań | hrgyah | hñi | hke | hrim | re | hldohu | hrgyah | [320] hñi
10 hke | g-vog | re | hrgyan | rne | re | hnoho | hkhru | re | hkyan
  hldehi | swah | rśań | ha3 | [321] stoń | hpoń | hprom | ge | hldehi
  bswa | hrśań | re | hrgyeb4 | kruhu | hpro || khru | byog | [322]
  rnor | hgar | hpu | hches | hno | hkhob | hprom | re | hrne | rdam |
   hte6 | he | ge | hkhruhu | [323] hyog | hsud | re | hche | rgyo | hkyim | re |
        hrgyeb | hkruhu | hbro | re | g-yah | [324] hpan | hwag |
15
        hdzohu | hkru | hyog | re | hdzohu | hkhad | htohi |
        hbri | hdzohu | kvim [325] re | hvah | hkruhu | hbro | | |
        hse he | hkoho | hgyan | re | hlab | hko | hgyan | [326]
        hnah | hpag | hldir8 | hse | htah | hdam ||
        htrog | hdre | hte | re | hrgve9 | hyo | hran10 na [327] ge | gse |
20
          hko | hgyan ||
        hsehe | hko | ho | hgyan | gell | hrgyah | hdihi | htron | re |
          hkah<sup>12</sup> | [328] hpvah | hldan ||
        ñene sñan | hldir | hkhoh13 | htah14 | hdamna |
        hnah | hpag | ldir<sup>15</sup> | [329] bri | gśe | hpuhi | re |
        hkhah | gsan | hran | re | hkho | hdah | hdamna ||
        htor | hpuhu [330] hbos | dze | hrgvo | hśeg | gśegra 16 | ge |
25
          rgvo | hto | stin ||
        rta | hsā | g-yer | dze | rbyo<sup>17</sup> | [331] gśeg | gśer | ge | rgyo | hto |
          18stin
        hgu | hmor | hkrur<sup>10</sup> | hrkom | hbron | hprah | [332]
        šes | hkeg | hrko | hge | hklu | hprah | hyuhu ||
        hkhram | re | hrdan | yan | hrkom | [333] hpyi | hprah ||
                                              2 bo? or a correction of bo?
     1 ho a correction (of huho).
     ha added below line.
                                                 4 b a correction (of n?).
```

```
1 ho a correction (of huho).
2 ha added below line.
3 Read rho-re: cf. l. 289.
4 b a correction (of n ?).
5 Read hldi-re or hldir-re: cf. ll. 328, 337.
5 Sic for rgyed: cf. l. 338.
11 hkah here written below line.
12 h added below line.
13 h added below line.
14 hkah above this and below ge cf. l. 327.
15 Read hldi-re of hldir-re? (Cl. 1208).
16 Sic for given and leave the same had below ge cf. l. 327.
```

Read ldi-re or ldir-re? Cf. l. 326.
 Sic (for gser: see l. 331).
 For rgyo?
 Read hkru-re?

bldi hro hgon re hkeg hrkol hrko hyuhu	
gsah rkah [334] glar² hwah hrog hldon	
hwah brog rho ge bkeg rko bwad	
3kruhu [335] hthe hprah dze h4rog ge hro	
hwad hwah rno ge rgyoho hto stin [336]	5
rman hwi hkho ge rgyoho hto st ⁸ in	
rman nwi nkno ge rgyono nto se m	
klu htah rgyohon re hśes ta hrgyon	
sto the the re [337] stor htah hdzon	
htor hrtah hldir ⁶ hstor ma swan	10
tor hrtah 7rme [338] ge stor hdzo hdzehi	
htrog hdrehe hte re hrgyed hyo hran ge hstor hdzo	
[339] hdzehi	
sron hñe hśer ⁸ stor hdehi hpyid	
hkyu hldon hrnor ⁹ hkyah hwa [340] ñer ¹⁰ hstor hdehi	
hphyid	
htor hrtah rme ge hstor ma hsan phyer ma hswan	
[341] rñe hprom hldir ¹¹ hphyar ma hswañ	15
rgyed hrah htor12 pyar ma swan	
htor htah [342] rme ge phyer htso htsehi	
klu hldo sme re mye ¹³ hrah htsah ge	
hko rno klu re [343] ¹⁴ rñe hñe hśes	
hldyan hpu hbri re mehi hklu hcah	20
sron ne gśe re ldan [344] [hdehi] hpyid	
hbo hron hrog re hlah hkyan hras re hses gsi	1
hoo hron hrog re thatt theyan that to see 8"	
[345] [hdzuhi]	ΪŤ
rgyeb hchi hro16 re gdag yan la por17 hses hsi hdzuhi	25
hyu hstsah kyim [346] re hdam sleg glom	20
rta hsahh ¹⁸ g-yer ge hdam sleg gcihi	
hyu hgyi ka [347] dze hrim glehu ge hśig	
stan hro hra dze hrnehe hno ge hpom	
glyan ru [348] hnu hnur dze hrim glehu ge hci	4
hgw ¹⁹ eg hwehe hphah hphah dze hthar phyan [349] ge	1
hrub	30
sri ge gsen hse ge hchan hjim htson ge rmon	
1 o here crossed out. 2 Read gla-re? 2 kluhu? slu here crossed ou	ıt.
* Something here crossed out. t inked over.	
 Read hldi-re: cf. II. 326, 328. Read hie-re: as in I. 343. Read hrho-re: Read ne-re: Read ne-re:	ю.
Read histore, as in 1. 343. Read hrho-re. 11 Read hldi-re? 12 Read htto-re? 13 Or rgye for rgyed?	MATE .
14 women for the following the here crossed out. +	
16 or here crossed out. It la por added below tine: cj. 1. 925.	
18 For hetsah? The first h(h) (for te?) added below line.	
19 w inked over.	

```
<sup>1</sup>por | ge | [350]<sup>2</sup> hyu | hstsah | hkyim | re | hcihi | htoho | ge |
          hnan ||
        na | hldom3 | hgor [351] hsehe | hti | ge | hnan ||
        hvu | hstsah | hkvim | re | hdam | sleg | gtsob | don |
        glyan | ru | [352] gtsob | re | mehi | cha | hrñe || ||
        hphu | hphu4 | mur5 | hdzu | hdro | hkus |
 5
        nan | pa | hsam | re | [353] hwah | hrah | hbyamna |
        gzu | hdro | hphor6 | hchi | hdo | hdyan |
        hbron | hldar | hdzam | re | do | ldo | hdzo | hpehi<sup>7</sup> | [354]
           hrah | hrtre | hdub* |
        htor | hso | hti | ge | htah | hldun | hbanna |
        hrtah | nan | hwar<sup>9</sup> | [355] hthah | hbro | hgran |
10
        hnur | hnah | rgyen | na | hnu | hldo | hldyoho ||
        hvan | re | rgyen | na | yan [356] hldyah | hldyah |
        hdzon | hvo | hśid | dze | ste | he | hdzu | ge | gcig |
        hke | hplan | hdra | dze | [357] thar | mve | ge | hlon ||
        g-wehe | hldvah | hldor | g-wehe | sko | hbab | dze |
15
                                    hram | yan | phlan | hnar 10 [358] | | |
     hpo | hldah | stor11 | hrah | hton | gsohu | | dze12 | rñe | ge | hgo ||
   na | hgo | na | hgon |
        rta | swa | [359] . . . hkohu | hprom | htoho |
        htor | hdro | hño | ge | hnu | glan | slug | na |
20
        nu | glan | phor13 | [360] . . . . mo14 | hna |
        hrtah | swah | hpeg15 | na | hkehu | hprom | to | | na |
        hnu | glan | rno | ge | kehu [361] pr[o]m | glan | na | kehu |
           prom | pwan16
        htor | hdro | hño | ge | hrne | hpo | hñe | ge | hkohu | prom
           [362] hdzoho | na | gehu | prom | pwań |
        hkehu | prom | sñar | hthah | hrbyo17 | htoho |
25
        hdza | ma | hnyon18 | re | [363] hke | ma | hnyon19 | hmu | lom |
           ge | hbvim |
     hlah here crossed out: cf. l. 345. Perhaps por-ge also was intended to be
   crossed out.
     2 bgon here crossed out.
     3 Correction (of hldoh): hgom here crossed out.
     4 The second [h]phu crossed out?
                                                        * Read mu-re?
     * Read hpho-re or hphor-re? Cf. l. 183.
     Read hpho-re or hphor-re.

7 do . . . hpehi in margin (to be inserted here?).

10 hand? (inked over).
                                                  12 rgve here crossed out.
     11 Read stor-re or sto-re?
     13 Read phor-re or pho-re ?
                                                   14 mu here crossed out.
      15 Read hphyegs ? Cf. L. 176.
                                                     is a correction from g.
                                                      18 hňyohe ? hňyoňe ?
      17 hbyo? (inked over). Sñar = sña-re?
     19 hnyene ? hnyehe ?
```

```
hkohu ||1 hban | kwa | kwa2 | ge | re | hnah |
 hdza | ma | [364] hne | na | rta | ge | htom | hphah |
 hke | ma | hnvehe3 dze | htor | ge | hdzo | htseh |
 hkehu | hkah | dwan [365] na | hldyan | hkah | dwan |||
 rgon | wa | myer4 | rbyo | rgyer | hldyan ||5
                                                                      5
 htsog | hram | myer<sup>6</sup> | so | na | [366] hśid ||
 rbyo | g-yer | hnor7 | rgon | wa | śid ||
 hkehu | prom | myer<sup>8</sup> | hnu | glan | ldyan ||
 hldyan | [367] hyah n | hyo | don | gnah | hgon | myag |
 hśań | khyań | dzwe | hyań | hyo | doń || 11 hyahń 12 | goń | [368] 10
    myag
 gsehe | can | hldyan | dze | hrnam | hdar | hyuhu ||
  hrno | hpran | hram | dze | [369] hsehe | rdzor | hnah |
  hldyan | hgoho | hdzin<sup>13</sup> | re | mehi | hrah | hdab na | 14
  hldyan | yuhu [370] hrno<sup>15</sup> | dze | hlde | ge | htah | hldon |
  mehi | spehi | hrah | je | hldehe | ge | htah | hldon | [371]
                                                                      15
  hdzam | hbroń | hroń | re16hbań | hko | htar | dze | 17hlde | ge |
    htah | hldon ||
  hkrug | [372] kyań | hldom | re | hrne | hno | hdzar | dze |
    hldehe | ge | htah | hldon ||
  hldyan | hyu | hjo18 | [373] [dze] | hkad | hron | re | hrgyen |
  hdzam | hbron | hron | re | hban | hko | htar | dze | hkad |
     [374] [h]ron | re | rgyen |
                    htar | phyan | hto | re | skyim | hse | hdzar || 20
  hpah | hwe | htho | hyah | pa- [375] . . hdzer<sup>20</sup> | hphyo | hli |
     g21-we
  śeg | sme | hldo | rbyi | hldyihi | hkad | hror<sup>22</sup> | rgyen |
  [376] . . . . rab | hgo | cig | dze | hkad | hron | re | rgyen ||
  hdza | htrog | hram | hdzar | [377] . . | hpag | cig | dze | hkad |
     hron re rgyen
  hpah | hldan | hro | dze | hse | ge | [378] htul | re | hse | ge |
     hlobhi ||
  hsaḥ | htsan | dzen²³ | rkom | hthul | na | rkom | ge | hron ||
                                                 2 h here crossed out.
Punctuation doubled by reviser.
                                          * Read mye-re or myer-re ?
3 he crossed out? Or inserted?
                                          6 Read mye-re or myer-re?
5 Punctuation a correction.
                            * Read mye-re or myer-re?
7 Read hnor-re ?
                                         10 h added below line.
* h added below line?
                                                13 h added below line.
11 Omit hyo-don | ? (metre).
                     14 Or hdan corrected to hdan?
18 hjin ?
16 | here crossed out or reinforced. 17 A bad h here crossed out.
18 hrho? 19 Something here crossed out. 20 hrher? hdzar?
11 y here crossed out. 22 hror? (Error for hron | re?). 32 n below line.
```

11 htah?

```
bos [379]—o[g] | dze[spe¹]hi | ge | hdza | na | spehi || ge |
          hthon |
       śes | rtsig | mon | ge | htsah | [380] . . . . . hrahi | hwehi | hrtah |
           ge | hrtsig | mon | hkun | na |
       rtsig | mon | [381] hsad | na | tsig | mon | we | ge | htsah | hpu<sup>2</sup> |
          hloho
       hbri | slod | hldo | dze | spo | ro [382] re | hto ||
        hdza | hldahi | hne | ge | tsa3 | hrgye | hrdza | na |
5
        hdzah | hldah | hkun | na | hdza | ld [383] hsad | na | hdzah |
          hldah | hwebi | ge | htsah | rgye | hlo |4
        hyan | hthe | ge | hsad | dze | ldvo [384] roho | hpahh<sup>5</sup>i |
        hdzam | hbron | hron | dze | hldvo | hro | hpehi ||
        hrsehi<sup>6</sup> | hpag | slog [385] dze | hrhe<sup>7</sup> | hrom | ge | hti | na |
          hrne | ge | hrlomhi | ; |
        hdzo8 | chi | te | re | hlab | hñañ9 [386] hvah | htah | hldyañ |
10
           hro10 hpehi
        hdzam | hbroń | hroń || hbań | hko | htar | [387] cig | dze |
                                                  hldvon | hro | hpehi | 11
        hldvan | hvu | hjo | cig | dze | htor12 | ge | hkroms |
        [388] mor | tsah | khrom | re || 13 hyan | tsa | heer ||
        tor | kru | hrgyan | re | hrtah | hpah | hphar [389]
15
        htor | sñan | rñi | re | rta | hldag | hsag | hldvan | hjo | hkromni |
        14hdzam | hbron | hron | [390] re | hban | hko | htar | ge |
        gdzu | hti | khyan | hdag | ge | hko | hto | swad
        skyan | hbe | [391] [hkya]h | ge | hnah | hdihi | htshur ||
        hldyan | hyan | hyo | ge | hgyah | hnah | tsur | [392]
20
        hldvi | hi | rgyed | hrah | htor | hbron | hgyan | don |
        hron | ma | hno | re | htar15 | ma | hgan [393]
        [hrgyed | hśań | sme | hyed | re | hbroń | hk[ru]hu | hbro ||
        hpo | hdam | htor | -re-e-re] [394] [.....rn-m-dah ......
           htor16(?) hbron] [395] [. . . . . . hgun | ge | gdah | kum ?]
           [396] [...ge | gdah | hgam] [397] [....rhu(?)—g | glah]
           [398] [.... bah | dze ?]...
                    2 Corrected from hpo.
                                                     <sup>3</sup> tsa added below line.
                                             h below line. hi crossed out?
     <sup>4</sup> Punctuation reinforced.
     6 Correction of heehi?
                                    7 rdze here crossed out?
                                                                    " hio ?
                        10 Punctuation due to reviser (correction of h ?).
     11 Punctuation reinforced.
                                              15 Correction from htore ?
     11 Punctuation reinforced.
                                              14 Punctuation reinforced.
                                              16 hldi?
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VOCABULARY

(Alphabetical order of head-words according to the Tibetan system, the root-consonants, and their Prefixes in sequence (for details see Note), and the five vowels, a, i, u, e, o, being in the usual succession. Numerals other than page-numbers (p,pp) refer to lines of the MS., as shown in the Text, page-numbers to this volume.)

K

ka (a Suffix) (p. 182)? 346 hgyio. kum, 395.

ke = hke I, q.v. 199 rgyah-gñio.

kehu = hke II, hkehu, gehu, q.v. 176, 360-1 -prom; 177 -hkah (p. 316).

ko = hko V, q.v. 202 rmań-brio. kwa-kwa 363.

kya I, 96 -htan-ta.

II = Tib. skya, crop (p. 355). See also kyah. 263 gśańo; 264, 279 hńoo; 265 hňono; 273 gśań--hrah-htońo (p. 317).

— -wa-ne = hkyah-hwa-ne, q.v.

162 (pp. 253, 338).

kyan = Tib. kyan, also, even (pp. 204, 311-12) or = hkyan II. See also gyan. 98; 192 -ni; 372 (pp. 318, 345).

kvanni, 192. See kyan.

kyah = kya II, crop. 273 se^o (pp. 297, 341).

kyim = hkyim, home, taken home, q.v. 324, 345 -re (pp. 218, 246). kyu = hkyu, speed, swift, q.v. 161

-ldon; 214 -hldon (pp. 253, 255).

kyeg = Tib. khyag, hkhyags, freeze, be congealed, numbed, 102 hsio (pp. 226, 301).

kyen = Tib. skyen, quick, dexterous. 103 theo (p. 322).

kyer = Tib. kyer, erect, or = hkyer, q.v. 136 -rbo; 145 hboo.

kran = Tib. kran-ne, kron, stand-

ing upright; mkhran, hkhrans, bkran, robust, hard, solid (pp. 288-90). See also hldan--kran/hkran/hkhran. 85-nur--nur (p. 290).

kru-hrgyan = hkhru^o. 388 (p. 312).

kruḥu = ḥkru, q.v. 321 -ḥpro = hbro; 334 -ḥthe.

kro = Tib. khro, hkhro, anger. 256 htaso.

kla = Tib. klas, abundant, unlimited. 143 hgoro; 206 hkoro (pp. 238, 297).

klag I = Tib. glag, lammergeyer.
 173 -hrwad (pp. 257, 341, 345).
 II = Tib. glags, occasion, season.
 268 hmu^o (p. 298).

klar = glar, q.v. † 205 hrano.

klu = Tib. gloň, ldoň, loň, blind (pp. 131, 138, 223). See also mehi/hmehi-klu. 5 -ge; 342 -re (pp. 223, 341).

- htah (a Suffix, pp. 182-3). 336 (p. 223).

- hto (a Suffix, pp. 184-5). 37 (p. 246).

-- rto 25 \ blind rock (pp. 138,

-- hrto 24 | 223).

- hldo (a Suffix, pp. 186-7), blindness. 342.

gkom, Prospective form of hkom II, q.v. (pp. 137, n. 1, 200, 368). 222 swa^o (p. 305).

hkan I = Tib. gan, full, all. See

¹ Note. The resultant order of consonants is as follows:—
K (g., h., r., hr., hl., s., hs.); KH (h., s.); G (d., h., r., hr., l.); Ñ (m., h., r., hr.); C (g., h., hs.); CH (g., h.); J (h., r., hr.); Ñ (g., h., r., hr., s.); T (g., h., r., hr., hl., s., hs., gr., gs.); TH (h.); D (g., d., h., r., hr., l., gl., hl.); h., r., hr., l., pl., hl.); P (b., h., r., hr., l., s.); PH (g., b., h.); B (g., b., h., r., hr., s.); M (g., b., r., hr., s.); TS (g., h., r., hr., s.); TSH (h.); DZ (g., h., r., hr.); W (g., h.); Ż (b., r.); Z (g., b., gb., h.); H; Y (g., h.); R (g., h.); L (h.); Š (g., b., h., hr., s.); S (g., b., h., r., hr.).

also hgań. 52 hldya°; 151 norgso°; 168 sñiñ°; 164 chah° (?); 190 wa° (?); 256 hgah°; 281 stom° (pp. 147, 173, 228, 241, 285, 328).

II = Tib. khan, house. See also hkhan. 208 -heig (p. 234).

hkan-hkan, onomatopoeic? 11 hrwano; 184 hramo (p. 344).

hkad I = Tib. hkhod, hkhad, build, settle. ? 133 -re.

II = Tib. gad, rock, precipice? --hron 373, 375-7 (p. 268).

hkab = Tib. khab, house, family. See also hkhab. 106-hdro; 110 (p. 335).

hkam 83 -stan; 130 hthan-phuo;

299 g-riḥi-ḥldomo.

- hkah I = Tib. kha, mouth, speech, occasion, or Tib. bkah, word, command. See also hkhah. 117 hran°; 137 hwa°; 153 hkeb°; 158 hkehe°; 178 kehu°, ldyan°; 191 skar°; 204 gsan°; 364 hkehu°; 365 hldyan° (pp. 174, 179, 200, 218, 252, 275, 315-16, 338).
 - II = Tib. dkah, steep, difficult, scarce. See also rkah. 46 me^o (p. 286).
- khab/hkhab, speech-concealing.
 105 -hkhab; 106 -khab (p. 315).
- -hgan, all talk. 194, 207 (p. 315).
 -hgo = Tib. kha-bsgo, advice, or bkah-bsgo, exhortation. 105
- (p. 315).
 --hcog = Tib. kha-eug, counsel.
 105 (p. 315).
- --hldom, mouth-bound = Tib. kha-sdom, gag; cf. bkah-hdoms, instruction. 66 (p. 314).

-- - hpyah, rebuke (Tib. hphya).327-8 (p. 315).

 -hran, independent in speech; cf. hran-hkah. 104 (p. 314).

--rdza/hrdza, accordant in speech. See also hkhah^o. 287, 290, 296 (p. 315).

-gsan, secret speech; cf. gsan--hkah. 214 (p. 314).

hkahi = hkah I (?), q.v., + hi. 239 (p. 315).

hkahe = hke I. 295 hrgya-hñiº. hkar I = Tib. bkar, skar, gar, dgar, sgar, separate off, pen, encampment (pp. 247, 343). 45 hriń--rwaº; 204 śor-hldaº (p. 343).

II, for hkhar? 192 °rpag (p. 242). hkarni = hkar I+ni; 204 (p. 343). hku I, a Suffix = hgu, Tib. gu (p. 258). 22 smuhu-hku = Tib. smi-gu, smyi-gu, smyigma, smyu-gu, smyug-ma, myugu, myug, reed.

II = Tib. hkhu, vie, contend, offend, &c. See also hkus; 152

orno (pp. 228, 264).

hkun, be hollowed out, or, metaphorically, cave in = Tib. khun, hole, pit (pp. 266-7). 124 hldań-krano; 309 g-rihio; 380 hrtsig-mono; 382 hdzah-hldaho (pp. 180, 266, 270).

hkum? = hkom II (Tib. hkhums, &c.), q.v. 250 rmoo (p. 294).

hkuhu = Tib. khu, sap, broth. 74 onehu (p. 250).

hkus, Aorist of hku II. 352 hdroo (pp. 264, 285).

ḥke I a Suffix used with numerals (?) (pp. 241, 272). See also hkehe, hkahe. 54 hao; 53, 199, 319, 320 rgyah-hñio, dec.

II = Tib. khe, profit, get, khe-pa, trader, dc. (pp. 241-2, 289, 316-17, 363, 364).

 -hkah, trade-talk, 52. See also kehuo, hkehuo, hkeheo, gehuo (pp. 316-17).

prom, profit-making. See prom, hprom, dc., and also keḥuo, hkeḥuo, geḥuo, 176.

-plań-hdrah, bazar. 195, 356;
 -hplań-hdra (pp. 241-2).

hkeg = Tib. kag, keg, kag-ma, keg-ma, mischief, hindrance, injury, accident; dkag, constipation; bkag, bkog, obstruction, prohibition; skag, mischief, &c.; khag-po, difficult, &c.; khegs, hkhegs, obstruct, debar, &c.; gag, wadding, quinsy; gags, obstructed; gegs, stoppage,

dec.; dgag, hinder, dec.; bgag, hinder, dec.; bgegs, hindrance, dec.; hgag, hgags, obstruction; hgegs, hinder, dec. See also hgag, hrgyeg.

hkeg-hrko, rko 332, 333, 334

(pp. 338, 340).

hkehi = hke II (?)+hi, 15 hstomhkomo.

hkehu = hke II, kehu, q.v.

- - hkah = hke II-hkah. 364.

— -prom. 177–8, 362, 366 (pp. 274, 316, 335).

— -me, profit-fire. 170 (pp. 274–5, 285, 316).

hkehe I = hke I, q.v. 291 hrgyahhñio.

II = hke II, q.v. 125 slaho (pp. 288-9, 335).

— (Π) -ḥkaḥ = ḥke (Π)°. 158 (p. 316).

hkes, Aorist form of hke II. 36 hpah-hrono (p. 269).

hko I a Particle = Tib. ko, go (with Pronouns) (pp. 201, 245, 260). 195 hldao (p. 245).

II = Tib. mgo, hgo, head, chief, initiative (pp. 260-1). See also hgo.

III = Tib. go, place, room. See also hgo.

IV = Tib. sgo, gate. See also hgo, rgo.

V? = hkho III (Tib. hkho, be, or deem useful or necessary; dgos, necessary (pp. 262-3))? 125 hldań-krań°; 156 rmań-bri°; 203 hbri° (pp. 287, 289).

-hgyan, cause, fault? See also hkoho. 325, 327 (p. 264).

-rno, leader? See also hkhoo (pp. 262-3). 53-6, 272, 342.

 -- htar (1?), head-released, cf. hbu-hpor? 68, 371, 373, 386, 390 (pp. 268, 331).

- -hto 390 (p. 264).

-hton, gate, or place, surrendering. See also hgo°. 212 (pp. 260-1).

-- hltah/hldah. Cf. hkhoh-htah,
 hkho-hdah (p. 264). 202, 203.

-- -hnag (II), black-head, com-

mons = Tib. mgo-nag. 266-7 (p. 260).

hko-bphyag. 101 hkohoo, signal a desire to speak? See also hkho--hphyag (p. 264).

- - wehi, room-making = Tib. go-

byed, 100 (p. 260).

— -se-hgro-re-htsa, those who have (others) placed above them? Or those who come to the top? See se-hgro (pp. 186, 264).

hkog I = Tib. hgog, bkog, khog, snatch, pull out, uproot. See also hkhog I. 23 htsah-gsom^o; 54 rbab-na-hke^o?

II = Tib. lkog, secret; no-lkog, open and secret. See also hkhog IV. 189 hsoo; 267 -hkho-rno (p. 285).

hkon, = Tib. gon. 'upper'? 223 htono. hkoni, written for hkon (Chinese chuan, chapter)+ni. 249 hsoo (p. 140).

hkob = Tib. khab, khebs, hkhebs, hgebs, dgab, khob, cover. See also hkhob. 107 na-hromo.

hkom I = Tib. skam, skom, dry, thirst, &c. 12 hboo; 15 stomo (pp. 231, 315).

 II = Tib. hkhums, perform, or Auxiliary Verb (pp. 137 n. 1, 200, 368). See also gkom, hgom.
 32 hgru-ma°; 118 hgam°; 136 gtse°; 166 yob°; 175 swa° (pp. 142, 243, 309, 345).

hkohi = hkohu, II q.v. -me, speechfire. 170 (pp. 275, 285).

hkohu I 363.

H speak (Chinese k'ou?) (pp. 254, 256-7, 264). See also hkhohu.

-- prom, phrom, &c., use speech. 166 phrom; 168 bprom; 169 hprom; 171 hphrom; 172 phrom; 174, 177, 180 bprom; 359 hprom; 361 prom (pp. 274, 276, 316, 335).

--me speech-fire. See also hkohio.
 171 mehe; 173 (pp. 257, 345).

ḥkoḥo = ḥkoḥu II, q.v. 101 -ḥko--bphyag (p. 264).

-- hgyan = hkoo, q.v. 325, 327 (p. 264). hkor I = Tib. skor, hkhor, khor, go round, return, entourage (pp. 271-2, 295). See also hkhor. 53 [-re]; 277 -re (or is this hkor II?) (p. 271).

II = Tib. hgor, delay, rest, be idle.
See also hgor. 205 -kla (p.

239).

 -- ḥtaḥ (a Suffix, pp. 182-3), one's own entourage. 92 (p. 239).

hkwań (*) 212 -hgo.

hkwehe 131 hbyeo.

hkya-wa-ñe = kyaº/ hkyahº, q.v. 215, 339 ñer (pp. 253, 338).

hkyań I = Tib. kyań, even, also, dec. See also kyań, gyań, yań. 344 hlaho (?) (pp. 204, 311).

H serf? (pp. 148, 297–8, 312). 18 hkrug^o; 141, 143, 274, 287 mor^o (pp. 295, 297, 323).

III written for hgyan. 114 -na.

-rgyań/hrgyań, stove-bed? 42, 81, 268 (pp. 298-9).

-- hldon, runaway serf ? 287, 291-

3 (pp. 239, 297-8).

hkyah-hwa-ñe, a class of living creatures, crop-work-injure? (p. 255), possibly with political allusion. 339. See also kya^o/ hkya^o.

hkyi = Tib. khyi, dog. 275 (pp. 285,

287).

hkyim, taken home, included in company = Tib. khyim, home; hkhyim, whirl; hkhyims, halo; hgyim, circumference. See also kyim, skyim, hskyim. 37, 294, 297, 323, 350, 351 -re (pp. 246-7).

hkyu = Tib. dkyu, dkyus, run, race; hkhyu, run away; hgyu, move quickly; brgyugs, race.

- hldon, swift-fleeing. 339 (pp. 253, 255). See also kyu^o.

hkyud = Tib. rgyud, string, lineage, dec.; brgyud, id.; khyud, mkhyud, hkhyud, hold, embrace, dec. (pp. 252, 258). See also hgyud. 220 rdzo°; 307 gzu-hbyi°; 303 hgab-hldoň° (pp. 173, 252, 258, 270).

hkye, offspring, child = Tib. skye,

skyes, khye-bo, khyehu (pp. 320, 368). 39 -ge-hmu.

hkyeb = Tib. khyab, fill? 13 hsrchi⁰⁰ hkyeb; 17 ñe⁰ hkyeb (p. 221).

hkyer = Tib. hkhyer, carry away; chu-yis-hkhyer, carried away by water. 56 hbah-hrago; 316 hyan-hldyan, or is this = kyer, erect, q.v.?

hkra = Tib. bkra, khra, criss-cross, variegated.

variegatea.

- - hrag, cross dyke? 13.

hkrag = Tib. skrag, fear. 135 hldag-nago.

hkraň = krsň, robust, dvc., q.v. See also hkhraň. 91, 112, 124 hldaň° (pp. 180, 288, 291).

hkri = Tib. khri, seat, chair, bed. See also khri, hgri. 81 hsio

(pp. 298-9, 317).

hkru = Tib. kru-ra, the lowest class of the people; dkru, abomination, filth; hkhru, hkhrud, wash; khrus, bkru, bkrus (pp. 148, 229, 295-7). See also kru, kruhu, hkruhu, hkruho, hkrur, khru, hkhru, hkhruhu, hkhrur. 313-hsud.

 -- hbro, taste as filth. See also kruḥu, hkruḥu, hklu (pp. 295-7). 221, 222, 297

(p. 228, 296).

 -- hyog, vile servants. See also hkruhu, khru. 289, 324 (p. 218).

-- re, being filth. See hkrur, hkhrur.

hkrug, quarrel (Noun and Verb), revolt, be disturbed, agitated, quarrelsome = Tib. dkrug, dkrugs, hkhrug, hkhrugs (id.), cf. grug, break (pp. 144-5, 258).

- - hrdzo, troublesome mdzo. 16

(pp. 144, 258).

 - hkyań, troublesome serf. 18 (or hkrug a Verb?); 371 (kyań; or hkrug a Noun?) (pp. 145, 295, 318, 323).

hkruhu = hkru, q.v.

- -hbro. See also hkruo. 313,

316, 318, 323, 325; 294 hbroho (pp. 228, 296).

hkruhu-hyog. See also hkru, khru. 322-3 °hsud.

hkruho, final = hkru+o. 316 (p. 228).

hkrur = hkru+re. Cf. hkhrur. 285, 331 (p. 206).

hkre, possibly = Tib. hkhren, desire, envy (a Verb). 132 hthanhgamo.

hkrom I = Tib. hgrem, dkram, bkram, khroms, spread, scatter (pp. 235-6, 304-5). 64 hdzo°; 70 ru-ge°; 389 hldyan-hjo° (pp. 157, 274, 303-5).

II Cf. Tib. khrom-me, glittering (from the root of I?). See also khrom, hgrom, hgroms. 12 hgyeo; 154 hgyeo (pp. 235-6,

304-5).

hkroms, Aorist form of hkrom I. Cf. hgroms. 387 htor-geo (p. 305).

hklu I = hkhru I, 221 -hbro (pp. 228, 296).

II = klu, blind, q.v. 332 (p. 223).
hklo = Tib. blo, glo, lungs, dc. See glo. 40 hphu°, perhaps bellows = 135 pu-hlo (pp. 284-5).

hklom, perhaps = Tib. klum, a species of divinity: or = glom, q.v., 42-ge-htul (p. 280, n. 2).

rkabs, a Verb: see also hrkabs. 272 rko°.

rkah I = Tib. dkah, steep, difficult. 2 (†); 165 (or is this U†); 333 gsah^o (pp. 281, 396, 338).

II = Tib. bkah, word, command. 84 mo^o (pp. 343-4). See also hrkah.

rke-hldah, perhaps = Tib. rke, lean, meagre. 155 hrdan.

rko = Tib. rko, hoe, dig. 272 -rkabs; 334 hkego, ohwad (pp. 338, 340). See also hrko.

rkom killed = Tib. bkum, slain; gum, dead; hgum, dgum, die (pp. 195, 368). 157 hbron^o; 378 (pp. 195, 217). See also hrkom.

rkwa = Tib. bkah, command: antithetical to hwah, g-wah (pp. 339, 343-4). See also ḥrkwa. 122 -ḥdzam (pp. 292, 343).

hrkabs = rkabs, q.v. 271 hrkoo (p. 339).

ḥrkaḥ = rkaḥ I, q.v. 10 hldio; 165 -myi-hrdoho (pp. 296, 329).

hrkas = Tib. skas, ladder, staircase (pp. 348, 359). 57 -hthan (p. 248).

hrko = rko, q.v. 271 -hrkabs; 332 hrkego; 333 hkego ohrko-hyuhu.

hrkom = rkom, q.v. 285 -hbron; 313 -hkru-hsud; 331 hkruro ohbron (p. 296).

hrkwa = rkwa, q.v. 224 -hdzam (p. 343).

hlkyaň = Tib. rkyaň, kiang, wild ass. 188 -hzu (pp. 252, 353-4). See also hglyaň.

skah = Tib. sga, saddle; sga-lag, saddle-frame; ska-rags, girdle. 45-rah (p. 317).

skar = Tib. skar, star, constellation (p. 276), 191 rňam^o (pp. 244, 315).

sku = Tib. sku, body (p. 355). 58, 164 -hphu-hti (pp. 194, 285, 300, 320). See also skuhu, hskuhu.

skuḥu = sku, q.v. Secalso ḥskuḥu. — -na (ra?) (p. 312). Cf. Tib. sku-ra.

ske = Tib. ske, throat, neck (pp. 288 n., 316, 355). See also pyio, phyio. 153 -hbrus; 158 -hbro (p. 316).

skeg, P.N (p. 134)-not in text.

sko = Tib. sko, select, appoint. 91 -prom; 134 (?); 357 g-weheo; cf. Tib. las-su-sko?

skyań ward off = Tib. skyoń, bskyań, protect, defend (p. 221). 109 myag-gre^o; 390 (p. 221).

skyar = Tib. skyor, bskyar, prop up, or kyor, weak, unfortified, or dkyor (-hbyin), (capable of being) thrown down? 205 hdzoňo.

skyim = hkyim, q.v., but always in the sense of 'house'. See also hskyim.

-- se, house-roof. 69, 374 -hae (pp. 248-9). skye = Tib. skye, be born, live, thrive.

-- ta a Suffix (pp. 182-3), life (pp. 239, 293).

hskuhu = sku, skuhu, q.v. 6 hkhur^o (p. 226).

hskyim-se = skyimo. 18-hrmoho.

Kh

khab, conceal = Tib. bkab, cover, shelter; khebs, hkhebs, cover; gab, hgebs, bgab, khob, cover, conceal. 106 hkaho, speech concealing (p. 315). See also hkhab, hkhob.

khar = Tib. mkhar, castle, citadel. See also hkhar. 117 -gsom (p. 252).

kho, a chief? = hkho, hkhoho (p. 263). 217 -sñe = Tib. gñe, court, or gñen?; 241 -re (pp. 263, 356).

khyag = khyog, hkhyog, bent, crooked (khyogs, dc., palanquin, sedan-chair). 52 khrio (p. 317).

khyan, matron (p. 240). 116 hsas--te^o; 190, 367 (†), 390 (pp. 240, 285). See also hkhyan.

khri = hkri, q.v. 52 hldago (p. 317).

khru = hkru, q.v. See also hkhru, hkhruhu, hkhrur. 165 -hrkah-myi-hrdoho; 321 -hyog (p. 296).

khrom = hkrom I or II (p. 304).
388 mor-tsaho; cf. hyań-ge-hgroms 64 (pp. 216, 304).

ḥkhaṅ = ḥkaṅ II, house, q.v. 198 ḥkhaṅ (p. 234).

hkhad = Tib. hkhad, hkhod, hgod, build, level, settle, dc.? 324 -htohi = -hto (Suffix)+hi.

ḥkhab I = khab, q.v. 105 ḥkaḥo (p. 315).

II = hkab, q.v. 280 -rgye.

-- hgro, go home. 233, 239, 243 gro (p. 315).

hkhāb (hkhahb)-hdro, come to house, 106 (p. 261).

hkham = Tib. hgam. hkham, &c.

cram into one's mouth, gobble, dcc. (p. 240). See also hgam II. 292 hrneo.

hkhah = hkah I, q.v. 116 hsaso; 163 -hldan (pp. 240, 315).

-- hldah (Suffix, p. 183), speaker.137 (p. 315).

— -ḥrdza = ḥkaḥº, q.v. 296 (p. 315).

— -gsan = hkaho. 329 (p. 314).

hkhar I = khar, q.v.

- hgyi, town's business (1) (p. 283 n.), 192 (p. 283).

-rpag, hrpag (pp. 195, 225-6).
 17 hkhah?; 128 hrpag; 135
 rpag (pp. 227, 243, 263, 305).

II for hkha-re or hkhar-re? 197 rhe-hldano.

hkhiḥi 211 = hkheḥi, q.v. 212.

hkhu I maternal uncle = Tib. khu, 'a-khu, uncle.

— -tsa (Suffix, pp. 187–8) 60 (p. 145).

II Some species of animal, perhaps a kind of wolf. 303 (p. 270).

hkhur = Tib. dgur, rgur, sgur, skur, bent down, crookback (p. 226). 6 hrpago.

hkhen = Tib. mkhyen, know. 92 (2) (pp. 295, 334).

hkhehi, i.e. hkhe = hke II, gain, profit, + hi. See also hkhehe, hkehi (pp. 242, 282). 212 mye-hpehio (p. 240).

hkhehe = hke II, hkhehi, q.v. 251, 314 hsaho (pp. 224, 262,

274).

hkho I chief (?) (pp. 262-3). See also kho. 217-18 htoro and htoro--hbrono; 209 -hśań (pp. 255, 263).

II top (connected with I?) (p. 263). 295 -hko = Tib. ri-kha, hilltop. See also hrihi-hkhoho.

III desire, want, have to = hko V (pp. 262-3). 336 hwio, have to make? Cf. 156 rman-brio hko, have to destroy?; 295 hhoo? or is this hkho I?

 -hdah 329 meaning? (p. 264).
 See also hkhoh-htah, hkohltah, hldah. q.v.

hkho-rôo = hko-rôo, q.v. 189 storo; 267 hkogo (pp. 263, 285).

 - hphyag = hko-bphyag, 106 (p. 264).

hkhog I = hkog I, q.v. 21 htsågsom^o (pp. 203, 306).

II = Tib. khog, interior? 51

stono (p. 328).

hôno; 314 hôno (p. 280). hkhob = hkhab I and hkab, con-

ceal. 322 hno (pp. 171, 359). See also hkob.

hkhoh-htah = hkho-hdah, q.v. 328 (p. 264).

hkhohi = hkho I+hi 218 (pp. 255, 263).

hkhohu = hkohu II, q.v. 106 -re; 292 htabo; 296 htabo (pp. 264, 298).

hkhoho = hkho I, 129, 216

(pp. 263, 272).

II = hkho II. 291 hrihio (p. 263).
hkhor = hkor I, retinue, entourage, dec. 18 hdzańo; 98 (?) (p. 295).
Return (?) (read hkhor-re?).
293, 294, 296 (pp. 297-8).

hkhwi seven? (p. 203).

- htsa, old, elder? (p. 343). 259 (pp. 319, 343).

hkhyan = khyan matron, q.v. 212 (p. 240).

hkhyam = Tib. hkhyams, roce, wander. 229 rñeo; 237 rñeo.

hkhyed=Tib. hkhyed, suffice. 119; 123 me°; 124 me°; 127 (p. 288).

hkhran = kran, q.e. and hkran. 127 hldan (pp. 288-9).

hkhram = Tib. hgrem, hgrams, bkram, dgram, spread, or khram, artful, lively, brisk. 332 -re (p. 305 and n. 1).

hkhru, probably = hkru, q.v. 320 -re (p. 296). See also hkhrur.

--rgyan 187 = kru° 388 (p. 312). hkhruhu-hyog = hkru°, khru° 322. hkhrur = hkhru-re 169 (pp. 157,

skhrud = Tib. skrud, put to flight. 9 rnu^o (p. 329).

244, 296, 323).

G

gah 232, probably erroneous: see critical note.

ge (possibly erroneous in 265, 279), a particle (pp. 173, 189-90, 204-5), passim.

gehu = kehu, hkehu, hke II, q.v. (pp. 316, 368). 362 -prom.

go, not in text, = hgo, vulture (p. 134).

gon = Tib. gon, upper, superior. See also hgon. 179 gnaho omyag; 367 hyahno omyag.

gyań I = Tib. yań, kyań, gyań, also, even, though (pp. 204, 311). See also kyań. 263 (pp. 283, 313).

II precipice? = Tib. g-yan. 313

-g-ri (p. 312).

III gyań-gyań = Tib. hgyań, dally (pp. 295, 312). 92 sňańo (p. 295).

gyim home = kyim, hkyim, dec. q.v. 148 rman-rao (pp. 246-7).

gras, Tib. gra, arrangement; gras, order, rank, dc.; hgras, difference between two parties; dgra, enemy. 300 -re. See also hgras, hras (pp. 266, 269, 306).

gre = Tib. gre, bear (p. 254). See also hgre. 109 myage; 305, 307 hrgame (pp. 231, 239).

gro = Tib. hgro, go. See also hgro. 243 khabo.

gron = Tib. gron, expend. 158 g-ri-tao.

gla = Tib. gla, wages (p. 251). See also glah, glar, hgla, hglah. 233 hdzańo ohnag.

-- htso/hdzo = Tib. gla-mi, hireling (p. 251 and n.).

glan I increase, get (?) = Tib. len, blan, or else glan, requite, return. 66 snano; 86 rne-stao; 99 rgyed-mao; 176 hke-promo; 361 kehu-promo (p. 318).

II = Tib, gian, or (p. 318). 66 ruo; 174-6, 359, 360, 366 hnuo, nuo.

III? 397.

glab = Tib. lab, speak. See also hlab, hlobhi. 180 -hdo, a Suffix, p. 186 (pp. 168, 197).

glah = gla, wages, q.v. See also hgla, hglah. 31 -tah (?); 228

hwaho (p. 251).

-- hlad wage requital. 233, 236 (pp. 251, 338). See also hglao. glar = gla-re. 334 (p. 338).

glehu = Tib. glehu, gle, edge of plough-land (p. 368). 347 - 8hrimo.

glo = Tib. glo, lungs, side; blo, mind, heart. See also hklo, hlo II. 68 -hran; 93; 116 puo (pp. 238, 268, 285, 336).

- - ta (a Suffix, pp. 182-3), purpose. 157 -rdzogs (p. 182).

glog = Tib. glog, lightning. 269 smyio (p. 339).

glom = Tib. rlom, conceit, covet. See also hrlomhi. 60 gpha--tsaº; 85 hno-staº; 346 hdam-

slego (pp. 145, 290). glyan probably a (Tun-huang) mispronunciation of rgyan, q.v.: ef. hglyan = hlkyan, Tib. rkyan. 230 hrano; cf. 147 (p. 225).

— -ru, long-horn = ox. 347, 351. dgu I hot, heat (pp. 232-3). See also dguḥu. 225, 245 -hmu-hto; 75-6 -htor (pp. 232, 273, 338).

-hldo (a Suffix, pp. 186-7), hotness. 74, 77, 78, 114, 139, 191, 309 -htor (pp. 201, 232, 243, 266, 270, 282-3).

II = Tib. dgu, nine, all. See also hgu II (p. 203). 127 storo; 134 -sko (pp. 233, 288, 290).

dguhu-hmu-hto = dgu Io. 236, 244 (p. 232).

hgā-hldon = hgaho, q.v. 308 (p. 270).

hgag = Tib. kag, keg, hinder. See hkeg. 65 -re (p. 228).

hgan = hkan I, full, all, q.v. 104 (or hkan II, house?); 123 hyuo; 168 hrio; 194, 207 hkaho; 392 (?) (pp. 147, 229, 238, 315).

heab-hldo (a Suffix, pp. 186-7), hidden, coverea. See khab. 155 mehio (p. 282).

hgam I = Tib. gam, gams, postingstation, settlement (p. 243). See also rgam, hrgam. 78 mehirao; 93 -phar; 110 -hphar; 118 -hkom; 131, 133, 221 hthano; 191 gdah-nao; 193 hnah-moo, gso-nado; 229 -lam; 289 -hpar; 396 gdaho (pp. 238, 243-4, 293, 315, 336).

 $\Pi = Tib$. hgam, hkham, bgam, cram into mouth, gobble; kham, morsel, dec. 59 hrano (p. 240).

hgah I place (?). 256 rgamo (pp. 147, 173).

II = I ? 283 -hrag/rag.

- - hldon, some creature, or phenomenon, on mountains. 302, 309-11 (p. 270).

hgahi = hgah (Tib. dgah, joy)+hi.

66 (p. 318).

hgar I = hkar I, separate off, pen, q.v. 69 hbehi-lao (p. 247).

II -hpu = Tib. mgar, smith. 289,

322 (p. 359).

hgu I a Suffix (pp. 190, 258). 226 moro; 227 mugo; 228 hbrio; 303 hdomo; 304 hdomo (pp. 256, 327).

II = Tib. dgu, nine, all (pp. 203, 233, 290). See also dgu II. 126 storo.

III = rgu, hrgu, thief, q.v. 113 -htor; 331 -hmor (p. 233).

hgun ? 395.

hdomo 312 hguhu = hgu I. (p. 254).

hge I = ge. 5, 8 hnamo; 332 (pp. 223, 341).

II = Tib. dge, happiness, welfare. See also hgehe, hrgehe. 73, 75 hwa-steo; 252 hlab-reo (pp. 273-4, 337-8).

 $hgehe = hge H, q.v. 75 hwa-ste^{\circ};$ 251 hban-reo, jo-reo (pp. 273-4,

338).

hgo I = hko IV (Tib. ago, gate) or hko III (Tib. go, place). 46 -hpo; 105 -hdro; 145 phyeo; 210 -gton; 212 -hton (pp. 200, 260-1, 286, 332).

II = Tib. go, vulture. 260 -hsor

(p. 261).

III hkah-hgo = Tib. kha-bsgo, advice, 105 (pp. 261, 315).

IV? 212 hkwańo; 358 rñe-geo, nao? (p. 261).

hgon = gon, q.v. 333 hroo; 367 gnaho.

hgon = hgon? 358 nao.

hgom = hkom II, q.v. 142 gdago (p. 323).

hgoho = hgo I. 261 g-rubo; 369 -hdzin (pp. 261, 342).

hgor = hkor II, delay, &c., q.v. 42, 143, 350 na-hldom^o; 113 hnahhpon^o; 201 hso-hldah^o; 209 hkho-hsan^o (pp. 233, 238, 297, 299, 341).

hgwa-nehu = hwa I, hwah I, -ne good work, q.v. 41 (pp. 338-40). hgwah-hrśań = hwa/hwah/g-wah^o

q.v. 229.

hgweg-hwehe = Tib. sgeg-byed, charmer, or hgeg-bye, husband. 348 (pp. 248, 343).

hgyan I = gyan III, dally (pp. 311– 12). 7, 77, 200, 296.

II confused with rgyan, spread, increase, hasten? 217, 392 htor-hbrono.

hgyans Aorist form of hgyan. 241 amyi-hnu°; 292 hgyan-sto = °ns-to (pp. 237, 298).

hgyan I = Tib. g-yan, itch. 153 (read hgyanni); 158 (p. 316). II See hko/hkoho-hgyan.

hgyah = rgya, rgyah, hrgyah, plain, q.v. 391 -hnah-tsur.

hgyi, business (Tib. bgyid, bgyis, byi, gyis, do: or Chin. i < gyi, Karlgren, no. 204?). 192 hkharo (p. 283 n.).

— -ka (a Suffix?) 346 hyu°.

hgyud = hkyud lineage, &c., q.v. 16 hrdzoo (p. 258).

hgye = Tib. hgye, light (hgyed, scatter). 12, 154 -hkrom-hkrom (pp. 235-6).

hgyed, a species of bird? 39 -gehban.

hgyeb = rgyeb I, hrgyeb, back, q.v. 221 -hkru-hbro (p. 296).

hgyehi = hgye+hi. 209 hphyu--hldyano. ḥgran = Tib. gran, cold. 28 -hnyir--ḥnyir (p. 362).

hgran = Tib. hgran, dgran, adversary, rival. 355 (p. 230).

hgrah I = Tib. dgra, enemy; hgras, arrangement in parties, alineation (whence also bkra, khra, criss-cross, variegated). See also gras, hgras, hras. 239 hchao (pp. 313-14).

II, possibly = I, or = Tib. sgra, sound? 8 me^o; 20 me^o.

hgras = gras, hras, aligned, q.v. 10 htano (p. 266).

hgri = hkri, khri, support, chair, bed, q.v. 38 hśi (pp. 299, 317).

hgru I = Tib. gru, gru-ma, corner, angle; gru-mo, elbow; yul-gru, locality (pp. 266, 306), perhaps originally a recess in mountains. 19 hldu-hroo (?); 24 -hsramgtam; 300 hrio (pp. 138, 306, 321). Or rock? (p. 306).

II = Tib. Hgru, an ancient tribe
of Tibet, perhaps the people of
Gru, a district of Tibet lying to
the east and north of Dbus (cf.
Gru-gu Rgya-ra in Khams).
Perhaps named from hgru I. See
hgru-hldan-hmah and hpu
(hphu, hbu) -hgru (pp.
307-9).

III = Tib. hgru, hgrus, bestow pains, diligence; brtson-hgrus, industry, energy. See hgru-

-ma, hgrus.

- ma (a Suffix, p. 182), council meeting (hgru III, or of Hgru people, Hgru II); cf. Tib. hdunma. See also hrim-ge-hgrus, hldu-hro-hgru (pp. 148, 308-9, 369). 27 -hti; 32 -hkom; 77 -man; 79 -hstor (pp. 278, 309, 345).

(II) -hldan-hmah, P.N. (of the city of the Hgru people?) (pp. 306-7). 21, 22, 30 ma; 35, 62 (p. 306).

(p. 306).

hgrus = Tib. hgrus, Aorist of hgru III (or possibly = Tib. hgros) (pp. 308, 369). 293 hrim-ge^o; 297 hrim-ge^o (p. 298). hgre = gre, bear, q.v. 17 gsan; 305 rgamo (p. 221).

hgro = gro, come, go, q.v. 67 hkose°; 233 hkhab°; 239 hkhab°

(pp. 186, 315).

hgrom flourish? But see hkhrom, hkroms, khrom (pp. 236, 305). 136 hldag[-nag]; 222-3 htor-hbron (pp. 243, 305).

hgroms, Aorist of hgrom. 64 hyan-geo (pp. 274, 305).

hgla, wages = gla, q.v. 237 -hlad. hglah = gla, glah, hgla, q.v. 232

hdzańo ohnag; 234 hdzańo onag. hglu (a possible reading: see critical note) = hgru, 77, 79 (pp. 278, 309).

hglyań 307 (p. 252), mispronunciation of hlkyań, kiang, q.v.: ef. glyań.

rgad = Tib. rgad, rgod, laugh (p. 348). 113 gtse-ne^o.

rgam I = Tib. sgam, deep (p. 147). 241 hno (?); 256 -hgah (pp. 147, 173).

II = Tib. bsgam, admit into company or settlement (gam, gams).
Cf. sbam, bams, boms. See also hrgam (pp. 196, 244, 352).
36 rgyed-bsañº; 241 hñoº (?);
304 hmañº (p. 283).

rgu = Tib. rku, lku, rkun, rgun, steal, thief. See also hgu III, hrgu (pp. 233, 347). 29-hmyil-

-myil (p. 259).

rgo = Tib. sgo, door, gate. See also hko IV, hgo I, rgor (pp. 262, 292, 348). 120 śi°; 258 -hldom; 314 -htoho (pp. 224, 291-2, 318).

 -- ḥraḥ, gate-ward = Tib. sgo-ra--ba 315 (pp. 228, 292).

rgon I = Tib. dgon, wilderness, solitude (pp. 349, 362). 39 -spu-rbu; 59-bee-rgye (p. 286).

II = Tib. sgon, sgon-na, egg (pp. 332-3, 348). See also hrgon.

— -wa, egg (Tib. sgoń-ńa?). 365, 366 (p. 332).

-ru, horn (sc. end) of an egg(p. 333). 103 (pp. 156, 333).See also hrgon.

rgor, Locative of rgo, door (p. 262). 96, 98 -hyos (pp. 262, 345).

rgya = Tib. rgya, plain, extent, country; rgya-dkar, large orb, disk. See also rgyah, hrgyah. 271 -hrko-hrkabs; 272 -rkorkabs (p. 339).

-- ḥñi-ke, the two orbs (sc. sun and moon, Tib. ñi-zlaḥi-rgya-dkar) (pp. 271-2). See also rgyaḥo, ḥrgyaḥo. 53, 319 hke (pp.

271-2).

rgyag = Tib. rgyag, throw, cast, found, dec. (pp. 235, 348). 27 smu-hdzu^o; 29 hyim-sto^o; 83 rte-hyu^o, hkam-stan^o; 89gsom^o; 185 hdon^o? (pp. 139, 259, 320).

rgyan = Tib. rgyan, stretch, extent, extensive, wall, distance; rgyans-te, arriving in haste. 51 hlduhu-ce°; 86 -na-spe; 89 hldyim°; 152 mehi-spa°; 300 wall? (pp. 266, 291, 298, 300, 312, 321, 328). See also hce°, hkyan°, hrgyan-sto, sid°, hran°.

rgyad, error for rgyed? 136.

rgyam = Tib. rgyam, rock; gyam, slab of stone; gyam, recess in a rock (pp. 280, 349). 109 tho^o; cf. Tib. tho-rdo (p. 280).

rgyaḥ-gñi-ke = rgya-ḥñi-ke, q.v. 199.

rgye extent, extended, cf. Tib. dbye (pp. 196, 286, 291). See also rgyehe, rgyes, hrgye. 57 (2), 59 (2), 60 hee?; 153 myi?; 154 hti?; 209 hldan?; 210 hean?; 280 hkhab?; 383 -hlo (pp. 171-2, 245, 248, 273, 286, 341-3).

rgyen put in order? (cf. Tib. yenyen) (pp. 256, 327, 350). 355 hnur-hnaho, hyan-reo (pp. 256,

327, 329).

rgyed, divide, cause division or dissension, Tib. hgye, hgyed, distribute, dcc.; hgyed-ma, dissension (pp. 139-40, 196, 290-3, 350). Ses also hrgyed. 105 -htso-dro, -hgo-hdro; 106 -hkab/-hkhāb-hdro; 192-hrańsme⁰ (pp. 261, 283). rgyed-hdre, division-inducing. 87; 94 htre; 248 htre (pp. 140, 291, 340).

-hIdag-nag, division black-back.
 112 (p. 291).

- - rmag, division-army, 149.

— ma (a Suffix, p. 182) division. 90, 93, 99, 101, 104–5, 107, 231 (pp. 291, 293, 315).

--hrah, place of division. 87
 hrar, Locative; 216, 248 hrar; 341, 342 (?), 392 (p. 140).

- - hrar. See ohrah.

— -gsań, secret division. 35 (pp. 244, 283).

rgyen = Tib. gyen, steep, uphill, difficult (pp. 145-6, 268, 350). See also hrgyen. 158 hde-ta°; 197 hmye-htah°; 374-7 hkadhron-re° (pp. 145, 268).

rgyeni = rgyen+ni. 198 (p. 341). rgyeb I = Tib. rgyab, back (Noun, Adverb, or Verb) (pp. 196, 228-9, 348). See also hgyeb, hrgyeb, rgyebs. 133 drawback; 190 -hphuhi-hton; 282 -hpuhi-hpuhi; 345 -hchi: Adverb (pp. 228-9, 269).

II, for hkyeb, fill, q.v., or = Tib. khebs, hkhebs, hgebs, cover?

116 muo (p. 285).

rgyebs, Aorist of rgyeb I, q.v. 139 'retreats' (p. 228).

rgyehe = rgye, q.v. 54.

rgyer = Tib. hgyer, drop, abandon. 365 -hldyan (pp. 332, 350).

rgyes, Aorist of rgye, q.v. 199
-hkom (p. 320).

rgyo = Tib. rgyo, copulate. See also rgyoho, rgyohon, hrgyo, hrgyon, rbyo. 48, 323 hcheo; 330 -hto; 331 -hto (pp. 178, 348).

rgyoho = rgyo, q.v. 335, 336 -htostin (p. 367).

rgyohon = rgyo, rgyoho, 336 (p. 223).

hrgan ripen, cf. Tib. rgan old. 160 gtsan-myi^o (pp. 145-6.)

hrgam = rgam II, q.v. 133 hthano; 169 hrpehio; 259 hpaho; 286 rpehi-hldaho; 304 hldyoo; 305 -grebe; 306 hmań-ge°; 307 hmań°; 316 -hstsag (pp. 231, 239, 244, 256, 262, 323).

hrgu, steal, thief = rgu, q.v. 30, 32 -hto-hrun; 58, 165 -ma-gzo (pp. 199, 233, 277, 335).

hrgehi = hrgehi, hge II, q.v. 58 -sto = hrgehis-to (pp. 233, 349).

hrgehe = hrgehi, hge, II, q.v. 72 hyaho (p. 361).

hrgon-hru = rgon-ru, q.v.

hrgod. See rsehio. 208.

hrgom, passed over, cf. Tib. hgom, tread, leap over, pass over; bgom, bgoms, gom, pace; goms, skilled, practised, whence sgom, bsgom, contemplate (pp. 157, 244-5, 348). 169 (pp. 157, 244, 296, 323).

ḥrgya-ḥñi-ḥkaḥe = rgya-ḥñi-ke, q.v. 295.

hrgyan-sto = hrgyans-to, being extended or hastening: see rgyan. 242 tha-hnu^o (p. 237).

hrgyah = rgya *plain*, &c., q.v.? 327 -hdihi (p. 317).

ḥṛgyaḥ-ḥñi-ḥke (ḥkeḥe) = rgyahñi-ke, q.v. 291, 319.

hrgyu = Tib. rgyu, material (pp. 286, 348). 60 hldano (p. 286).

hrgye I, error for hrgyed, q.v. 326 -hyo.

II = rgye, q.v. 382 -hrdza, greatly friendly: cf. rgye-hlo.

hrgyeg, stop, hinder, cf. Tib. hgegs, dgag, bkag, id., skyeg, keg, kag, misfortune. See also hgag, hkeg (p. 349). 292; 302 hsin.

hrgyed = rgyed, q.v. 393 -hśań--sme.

-hyo. 326 hrgye; 338.

-- - hrah, hrar. 216 hrah, hrar; 243 hrar; 246 hrar.

ḥrgyen = rgyen, q.v. 373 ḥkad--ḥron-reo.

hrgyeb = rgyeb I, back, &c., q.v. — -hkru (kruhu, hkruhu)-hbro.

297, 321 kruhu-hpro; 323 hkruhu (pp. 228-9).

-hkruho. 316 (p. 296).

hrgyo = rgyo, q.v. 330 -háeg (p. 178). hrgyon = rgyo, rgyohon, q.v. 336 (p. 223).

Igyoho? = Tib. g-yo, move, shake. Cf. g-yo, hyos; 11 (pp. 270, 354).

N

na I used sometimes in place of the Postposition na (pp. 179-81, 193-4), when following -n (p. 360). 56 hbyino; 56 meo (?); 199, 201, 206, 207 rmano (?).

H = Tib. lna, five? (pp. 203,

241); 54 -hke (?).

III ? = ñah, home, q.v. 199, 201, 206-7 rmañ-ña, tomb-home? cf. hldañ-hkhañ. But see I. 102 -htsog.

nan = Tib. nan, bad, 158 chos-tao

(pp. 145-6).

ńah, home, cf. Tib. ña-ma, housemistress, and, as regards the ñ, pp. 238, 360. See also hnah I, na II, hnah I.

nar = Tib. nar, strength, vigour (pp. 144, 300, 361). See also nar, hnar, hnar, 204 pa° = Tib. dpah (pp. 300, 361).

nal (not in text) (p. 133).

nur = Tib. nur, grunt, cf. nu, nud, weep, sob. See also hnur, hnu, hnu-hnur. 85 -nur (p. 290).

nor. See hnor.

mnar (Locative) = Tib. mnah, power, mastery. 261 (p. 342).

ḥha, error for hnań: see critical note. 188 (p. 252).

ḥñad = Tib. ñad, vapour, fragrance, evaporate (pp. 294, 321). See also ḥñaḥd. 90 htshog-ḥram^o.

ḥńah I = ńah, q.v. (pp. 238-9). 56 -hce; 307 -na; 326 -hpag; 328 -hpag (pp. 196, 239).

II = Hsi-hsia dhah, empty, sky = ha in mystical Buddhism (see S. C. Das' Dictionary)? Generally in the phrase re-hhah, there is absence (void) of (p. 239). 49 hrdzro°, for hdzo-re°; 87 re°; 235 -sto = hhas-to; 291 re°; 369 rdzor°, for rdzo-re°; 363 re° (pp. 239, 288, 298).

hnah (I) -mo, house-wife 193 (pp. — (I) -htsu, house-man 196, 238).

ḥṅaḥghi = hhag+hi. See nag I, hnag I. 137 (pp. 218, 275, 315, 338).

ḥṅaḥd = ḥṅad, q.v. 116 ḥyaḥ--hṅebi^o (p. 217).

hnar = nar, q.v. ? 357 phlano.

hñas, error for hsañs (see critical note)? 144 hrñe-hldaño.

hnu = Tib. nu, weep, sob: see nur.

--hnur for hnur-hnur. 348.

-hldo (Suffix, pp. 186-7), weeping. 355 (p. 256).

hnud = Tib. nu, nud, weep, sob.
41 -nohu.

ḥṅur = ṅur, q.v. 60 -hṅur; 61 -hṅur; 348 hňu°; 355 -hṅah (pp. 145, 172, 256, 327).

hnuran, erroneous reading (for hran) in 230.

hie, error (for hive?). 364.

ḥńehi. 115. See hyah (pp. 191, 217).

hno I = Tib. no, face, dec.; no-lkog, openly and secretly (pp. 220-1). 251 -hkhog-lto; 258 -hdan; 314 -hkhog; 322 -hkhob (pp. 171, 221, 280).

II friend, side = Tib. nos, side, state, person, direction (pp. 220-1, 266). See also hnon, hnohu, hnoho, hnor I. 56 rneo; 133 rne-reo; 241 -rgam; 264-5, 279, 295 -hkho; 299 hrio; 347 hrneheo; 372 hrneo (pp. 219-21).

— (II) -sta = -s-ta, friend. 85 (pp. 290, 341).

— (II) -sto = -s-to, friend. 84, 85.

— (II) -stor, friends fled or lost (pp. 219-20, 290). 79, 119, 127, 128, 143, 196, 257 (pp. 294, 303, 309).

(I) -bro, fice into space. 108 (p. 221).

 II -ra, group (or place) of friends. 264, 265, 279.

hnon = hno II. 265 -kya.

 -- ta (Suffix, pp. 182-3) friendship. 265.

hnohu = hno II. 206.

hnoho = hno II. 273 -hjam; 320 rne-reo (p. 317).

hnor I for hno-re. 65 -htsah; 130, 132, 219 (pp. 157, 187, 219, 258, 259).

H = Tib. nor, property, wealth, cattle, farm (pp. 225, 245, 361-2).
 11 -hlah; 50, 52. See also nor (pp. 245, 328, 344, 361).

- III ? 17 hnor-hlan.

hnyir-hnyir = Tib. nil-nil, trickle down, 28 hgrano (p. 362).

hnyehe, probably = hño, hnyon (see critical notes to ll. 361-4) (p. 362). See also hño. 363, 364 hke-mao.

hňyoň = hño, q.v. (p. 362). 362 hdza-ma°; 363 hke-ma°.

rňab († rbab), possibly = hrnab, q.v. 54 -na-hke.

rnam = Tib. rnam, threaten, rage, dazzle, devastate. See also hrnam. 49 -nar; 191 -skar (pp. 244, 315).

rne enemy = Tib. rne, fiend (pp. 219-22). See also rnehi, hrne, hrnehe. 85 -hwe; 130 -hbye-hkwehe; 155 -ne; 177 -hpo; 196 -hldan; 274 -hdzam; 320 hrgyano (pp. 220-2, 316, 335, 341).

-- - hldah (Suffix, p. 183) hostile. 310 -hro.

rnehi = rne+hi or rnehe, is enemy. 86 -rnehi (p. 219).

rno = Tib. rno, ability, competence (pp. 262-4, 339). See also rnor, hrno, hrnoho, hrnor. 53-6 hko-; 116 -mu-rgyeb; 189 hkho^o; 267 hkho^o; 272, 342 hko^o; 141 stor^o; 152 hku^o; 156 g-yog^o; 161 Idon^o; 179 glan^o; 189 hkog^o; 277, 309 wa^o; 334 hwah-hrog^o; 335 hwah^o; 360 hnw glan^o (pp. 228, 253, 263, 270, 281, 297, 338, 340).

rnor = rno-re. 289 hyogo; 322 hyogo.

rnye, for rne, q.v. 206 -ne (pp. 221, 362).

ḥrham = rham, q.v. 368 -hdar (p. 320).

ḥrñu = Tib. rňu, pain. 9 -skhrud (pp. 329, 348).

hrne = rne, q.v. 16 -gsan; 119, 127, 141, 144 -hldan; 292 -hkham; 322 -hdam; 361 -hpe; 372 -hne; 385 -hrom (pp. 145, 220, 221, 274, 288, 316, 335).

-- hldah = rhe°. 303 hro (p. 270).

hrnehe = hrne, rne, rnehi. 131, 347 -hno.

hrño = rño, q.v. 16 'hyod; 49 'hean'; 188 're; 189 hkho'; 214 hldon'; 269 hwaho'; 368 'hpran (pp. 239, 252, 253, 258, 263, 285, 339).

hrnoho = hrno. 302 hsino.

hrnor = hrno-re, 171 htio; 339 hldono (pp. 257-8).

C

ca = hcab, q.v. 235 -yan (pp. 303-4).

can I = Tib. can in can-rig, can-ses, all-knowing or very knowing (pp. 283-4). See also chan.

Il Suffixed, 'disposed to' (?) = Tib.

-can, possessing, &c. (Probably identical with I and with Tib. gcan, clever; bcans, comprehensive, &c.: see ibid.) See also hcan, chan.

III = Chinese ch'eng, city? 118 (p. 243).

— (I) -sme, all-blazing. 262 -me (p. 283).

(II). 36 rgam^o; 118 hphar^o; 298
 hphya-myi^o; 368 gsehe^o (pp. 244, 283, 359).

ci, probably a Suffix or = Tib. ci in the sense of 'those who'. See also chi. 259, 261 hdago (pp. 192, 202, 342).

cig = Tib. hjig, gàig, bàig, bàigs, destroy, do away with, perish (p. 234). See also gcig, hcig, hàig. 150 hkyer-re^o; 194 stegdzu-ge^o; 376 rab-hgo^o; 377 hpag^o; 387 hko-htar^o (1); 387 hjo^o (1) (pp. 241, 305-6).

- dze, an official title? (pp. 305-6).

186 -htor; 188 -tor; 192 -htor (pp. 305, 331).

cis ? 84 -tsha (pp. 259, 359). Cf. gci, chi II, chis?

ce = hee, q.v. 51 -rgyań (pp. 321, 328).

cog, not in text (pp. 132, 368). See gcog.

gci = Tib. mehi, 90. See also gcihi, hci, hcihi. 47 -me (p. 286).

gcig = cig, q.v. 356 ste-he-hdzu-ge^o. gcihi = gci? 346 hdam-sleg^o.

gceg = Tib. hcheg, tseg, tshegs, check, &c. (p. 294). See also hceg, tseg, gcheg. 234 hsohnaho.

gcog meadow (p. 249), or possibly = Tib. lcog, roof. 69 -hlde-hldu (pp. 247, 249, 321).

hcag = Tib. cag-ga, care; chagrgyag, doubt.

- rgyag, hesitation. 83 (p. 259).

hcan I = can II, q.v. 48 gse^o; 49 hrno^o; 299 hldon^o (pp. 239, 265).

 $\Pi = \text{can} \ \Pi\Pi, \ q.v. \ 210 \ \text{-rgye}$ (p. 245).

hcam. 247 -hjam-htam.

hcah = Tib. hchah, hchas, snap at, mangle (pp. 252-3). 82 -rte (?); 115 -htso-htsah; 240 -hyan (pp. 252-3, 259, 303, 320). See also ca-yan, mehi (hmehi)klu-hcah.

hci = gei. 300 hriº; 348 hrimglehu-geº (?) (pp. 265-6, 340).

hcig = cig, q.v. 208 hkańo (p. 234).
hcihi = gci, q.v. 205 rmago; 350
-htoho, a Suffix, pp. 184–6 (pp. 300, 361).

hce = Tib. che, chen, gcen, ched, ches, great. See also hche, hches. 53 na°; 54 hko-rho°; 57 rgyań°.

-- rgyan, of great extent. 16, 50, 52 (2), 55 (pp. 267, 291, 327).

-- rgye, of great extent. 57(2), 59 (2), 60 (pp. 286, 291).

—-hmu, great cold = death. 200, 206 (pp. 222, 232).

— -ra (hra, hrah), great place. 49, 50 hra; 56 hrah (p. 313). hceg = geeg, q.v. 250 (p. 294). hcer = Tib. geer, beer, glare, stare; ce-re, cer-re, with fixed stare (p. 304). 71 hcha-geo; 202 neo;

(p. 304). 71 hcha-geo; 202 neo; 388 hyań-tsao (pp. 216, 222, 274, 304, 359).

hco = Tib. jo, gtso, jo-co, rjo, gtso, cho, chief, lord. 55 (2) (p. 263).

hcog I. See hkah-hcog.

 II = htsog, assemble, &c., q.v.
 --hdo (a Suffix, pp. 186-7) = htsogo, union. 88 (p. 340).

— -ḥram-ḥdo = ḥtsogo, harmony. 87.

hscah = hstsah, q.v. (p. 278). 166 -g-yer; 296 -hyer.

Ch

cha I = Tib. cha, part, tidings, affair; khyim-cha, household prospects, &c. See also hca, hchah. 98 hmoo (p. 345).

II. See mehio.

- - hru? See also hcha-hru. 203 hwars.

chañ I = cañ I, q.v. 263 -rdzum (p. 283).

II = can II, hean I. 76 hdzo°; 91 se° (pp. 283-4).

III = Tib. hehan, beans, hold, carry. 261 phyero (pp. 239, 283).

chad = Tib. hehad, ehod, gead, bead, geod, cut, fix, decide. 165 -rmu (p. 276).

chaḥ = cha I, story, matter? 164 -hkañhi (p. 315).

chi I = ci, q.v. 260, 261 hdago (p. 239).

II = gci, go, q.v. See also hchi. 168 -hrmu; 385 -te, a Suffix (pp. 274, 276).

chim = Tib. hehim, htshim, become full (e.g. the moon), satisfy, drc. See also hehim, htshim, chis.

-hldim, waxing-waning, impermanent? 199 (pp. 320-1).

chis, error for chim, q.v.? or = Tib. mehis, come? 94 gdim^o (pp. 320-1, 359). See also tshis.

cho (not in text), tiger (p. 132).

chos = Tib. hehos, beo, beos, chos, make, arrange, originate, dec.; cho-rigs, lineage, dec. See also hehos. 159 hre (p. 145).

- - ta (a Suffix, p. 182). 158 (pp.

145-6).

gcheg = geeg, heeg, q.v. 111 hso--hnaho (p. 293).

hcha = hcah, q.v. See also mehiklu°. 71 -ge-hcer; 239 -hgrah (?) (pp. 253, 304).

-- hru = chao. 202 -hrdyan.

hchan 349 -hjim.

ḥchi = gei, chi II, go, q.v. 183 - hdo;
 345 - hro; 353 - hdo (pp. 186, 269, 276, 332).
 ḥchim = htshim, cf. chim. 38 hái-

-hgrio (p. 299).

hchir 233 -htsah-sto.

hchun = Tib. eun, geun, chun, small. 185 htor-hdoo (p. 139).

hche = hce, q.v., or Tib. gees, dear, important, 115 hraño; 117 raño (p. 252).

-- hmu, great cold, death = hceo; 204 (p. 200).

-- rgyo copulation. 323 (p. 246). hches = hce, q.v. (pp. 359-60). 322 hgar-hpu^o (p. 359).

hchos = chos, q.v. 153 byo; 159 hnaho; 160 šio (pp. 145, 172, 174, 217, 273, 320).

J

je, error for dze. 116 (pp. 240, 315).
jo = Tib. bzo, work? See also hjo, hjoho. 251 -re; 253 -me (pp. 274-5).

joň = hjoň, hdzoň, q.v. 78 Hmoňo (p. 243).

hjan, see hlan. 101, 107.

hjam = Tib. hjam, gentle, mild, pleasant. See also hdzam (pp. 297, 339). 186 -ge-hmehi, -htam; 269 hrño°; 273 hñoho°; 274 -rho (pp. 281, 317).

hjah = hdzah, eat, q.v. 92 -htah, a Suffix, p. 182 (p. 334).

hjar = hdzar, stick, stick together, q.v. 220 hdruo (pp. 173, 366).

hji = Tib. hji, lji, flea, no matter? See also hjihi, hrjihi (p. 231). (Or, per contra = Tib. lci, lji, heavy?). 211 -rdan (p. 260).

hjim, possibly drug and herb collectors, ef. Tib. hjin, hjim (p. 280, n. 1). 109 -li-li; 156 -ta, a Suffix, pp. 182-3; 314 g-rio; 349 -htson (pp. 280, 322).

hjihi = hji, q.v. 78 -re; 306 (pp.

244, 231).

hju, ass, cf. Tib. gzu-lum, obstinate (p. 252). See also gdzu, hdzu, gzu, hzu, hjuhu. 115 hrańhcheo (p. 252).

hjuhu, tiger = hju, q.v. 312 -hbrad

(p. 254).

hjo I = Tib. jo, &c. See hco. 63 hyan-tsa°; 78 ldyan°; 154 hchos-hyo°; 201 trog°; 372 hldyan-hyu°; 385 -chi-te (1); 387 hldyan-hyu°; 389 hldyan° (pp. 273-4, 305, 331).

- hdzin, govern. 74 (p. 274).
 II = jo, work, q.v. See also

hjoho. 67, 70 -me-hdub (pp. 274, 335).

III = Tib. za, zo, &c., eat. 177 (pp. 274, 335).

IV error (for hto)? 69 thar-pyano (pp. 247-8).

hjon = hdzon, fort, q.v. See also jon. 118 Mono; 129 Mono (pp. 243, 263).

hjohu = hdzo, man, q.v. 137 -hwahkah (pp. 218, 338).

hjoho = hjo II, work. 34 (p. 275).

hjor = Tib. eor, clamour, &c. 194 hkah-hgano (pp. 238, 315).

rje = Tib. rje, chieftain. 37 -smyirmad; 138 hdzchu^o (pp. 218, 228, 237). See also hrje.

rjes = Tib. rjes, trace? 201 pyio (pp. 222, 274, 359).

ḥrjiḥi, r-form of hji, hjiḥi, q.v.? 213 hbos-ḥdomo.

hrje = rje, chieftain, q.v. ? 84 -smyi--rmad (p. 227). 36 hldyoo? ? (p. 244).

Ñ

ñe = Tib. ñes, evil, dv. (pp. 221-2).
See also ñene, ñes, hñe, rñe, rñehe, hrñe, hkyah-hwa-ñe.
17 -hkyeb-hkyeb; 149 sñiño;
229 sñaño; 343 -hśes (pp. 221-2, 256, 313).

ñene = ñe-ne? 328 sñaño.

ñer (ḥkyaḥ-ḥwaº) = ñe-re. 340 (p. 253).

ñes, Aorist form of ñe = Tib. ñes. 153 -re; 158 -re; 192 (pp. 283, 316).

gñi = Tib. ñi, gñi, sun. See also ḥñi (pp. 271-2). 80 -ḥrdzum; 199 rgyaḥ-gñi-ke (pp. 186, 271, 293).

gñim = Tib. ñin, gñin, day. 1: -hti (pp. 235-6, 362).

hñan I = Chin. ñan, female. 45 -hya (p. 343).

II, hear? 385 -hyah-htah (p. 331).
hfil I shine, cf. Tib. ñi, gñi, sun (pp. 272-3). See also hfils. 67 hlab-ma^o (p. 272).

II = Tib. gñis, ñis, two (pp. 234-5). See also sñi. 140 -stor.

III? 187 -htor; 215 -htor? (p. 272).

ḥñis, Aorist form of hñi I, q.v. 70 hlab-me^o (pp. 173, 273, 358).

hñe = ñe, q.v. 209 -nag; 343 srono; 361 -hpo; 339 srono (pp. 256, 274, 316).

hñed = Tib. mñe, mñed, &c., tan, make pliable. 31 -htram; 47 -ge-slug (p. 251).

hño = Tib. ño, buy, trade. 174, 177 hdro°; 359, 361 dro°, hdro°.

rñi = Tib. rñid, brñis, gñid, fade, grieve; rñis, worn out, faded; cf. rñiń, old, gñid, sleep. See also hrñi. 389 sñaň-rñi-re.

rñe, r-form of ñe, evil. See also, rñye, ḥrñe (pp. 222, 350, 362). 146 -hne-hrmag; 149 rmage; 200 -ne; 201 hjoo; 229, 237 -ḥkhyam; 301-ne; 341 -hprom; 343 -hñe-ses; 358 -ge-hgo (pp. 221-2, 261, 274, 313, 321).

- - hlad, requital of evil (p. 223).

230, 231, 232, 235 lad; 237, 239 (pp. 183, 303).

rňehe = rňe, q.v. 297 -hbrom.

ḥrñi = rñi, q.v. 63 hyan-hso^o; 298 hbos-stsah (p. 303).

hrñe = rñe? 352 mehi-chao.

sñaň I = Tib. sňiň, heart. See also sňiň. 92 -gyaň; 102-3 († see II); 389 -rňi (pp. 156, 295, 333-4).

-- ne, good heart (or II?). 65 hpha-ma^o; 160 -thehe; 328 ñene (pp. 222, 318).

— -ñe, evil-heart. 229, 328 ñene (p. 222). See also sñiño.

II = Tib. sñan, agreeable, affectionate. 66 -glan; 102-3 (? see I) (p. 318).

-do (a Suffix, p. 186), affection.86.

sñar, probably for sña-re (metre), and possibly sña = Tib. sña, gña, witness (p. 356). 362 bkehu-promo.

sñi I = Tib. gñis, two. See also ḥñi II (pp. 203, 235, 356). 23 gsomº.

II = Tib. rñi/sñi, snare, trap. 219 (p. 272).

sñin = Tib. sñin, heart. See also sñan I. 168 -hkan (p. 147).

— -ñe, evil-heart = sñañº. 149 (p. 222).

sñe, conceivably = Tib. gñe, woo, court (p. 356). 217 khoo.

T

ta, a Suffix, appended chiefly to words
of Verbal, or at least Adjectival,
sense, See also tah, hta I,
htah I, tha I, sta I, stah I,
(pp. 182-3, 187). See under
skye-, glo-, hnon-, chos-,
hjim, htan-, stor-, hdab-,
hde-, byin-, hmo-, hwan-,
hwar-, g-yah-, hyed-ge-,
hro-, hrom-, g-ri-, hlab-,
bśi-, hśes-, hśo-hti-ge-

tah = ta, See byin-, gśań-, glah (?).

te, a Suffix, appended normally, with the sense of a Gerund, to Verbal words. See also hte, ste I, hste I (pp. 136, 140, 188-90). See under chi-, htan-ma-, pun-, hphom-, hsod-, hsas-.

to, a Suffix, appended to Verbal or other words, with the sense of 'being' or 'becoming', and constituting a Verb Finite ('is'), an Infinitive or Participle. See also tor III, hto I, htos, htoho, htohi, htohu, htor I, htoni, sto I (pp. 184-6). See under htad-, stor-, hdam-, hpā-, hprom-, hmu-, g-yaḥ-.

tor I great, perhaps derived in ancient times from an early form of Chinese ta. See also htor II. 50 hldyo°; 219 -sñi; 174 -drohño; 64-hpu-hgru; 216-hbron; 219 -sñi; 337 -hrtah; 388 -kru (pp. 263, 272, 305, 308).

II = thor, hthor, q.v. 148 -htas-

-prom (p. 302).

III written in place of to-re: cf. htor I. 188 cig-dzeo (p. 305).

twan = Tib. thon, ram? 48 -maghno; 261, 275 (pp. 342-3).
tyan 213 hbehio ordehe (p. 253).

trog, enemy? (pp. 220-2). See also htrog, 201 -hjo-rñe; 266 -htor

(pp. 221, 222, 274). gtan = Tib. gton, gtan, btan, send, let go, allow, &c. See also gton,

186 mehi-rao

hton, thon. (p. 331).

gtah = Tib. gtah, pledge, hostage. See also gtar. 111 -hbom-rbo (p. 230).

gtar, written for gtah-re? 43.

gton = gtan, hton, q.v. 211 hgoo (pp. 200, 261, 332).

hta I, a Suffix = ta, q.v. 181 grteheo (pp. 156, 197).

II = Tib. da, now, dec.? See also htah. 185 (p. 186).

htag = Tib. thag, rope, hdogs, btags, gdags, tie, dec. 34 hyoso (p. 275).

-- hto (a Suffix, pp. 184-6). 278 htos; 279 htos, hto; 285.

htan I = gtan, q.v. 94 htsogo; 96 htsogo. See also hthan III. II = Tib. than, measure, power, 9 moro; 10 hyano; 39 myeo; 149 meo; 315 hyano; 318 hyano. See also hthan II, thwan, hthwan (pp. 227, 276, 296, 301-2).

III = Tib. than, plateau, field. See also than, hthan I. 14 -hldu; 218 -hrdzo (pp. 258, 321).
IV ? 11 -hmu-hro; 96 kya° ota

(pp. 270, 329).

htad = Tib. gtod, gtad, btad, hand over, deliver, press, urge, gtad, steady, firm, 30 gśań-re°.

htab = Chinese ta (A. tap), answer. 293, 295 -hkhohu (pp. 264, 298).

htam I = Tib. htham, hthams, thams, join, enlock, stick fast, thams-cad, all. See also htham. 24 hsram^o; 54 stehi^o (pp. 138, 306, 353).

II = Tib. gtam, speech, story, 60 hldan-rgyu^o; 248 hjam^o (p.

286).

htah I a Suffix = ta, q.v. See under klu-, hkor-, hkhoh-, hjah-, htor-, stor-, hlde-, hldehi-, hldyan-, me-, hmye-, hdzom-, hyah-, hwa-ste-, rwye-, g-ri-, hram-ge-, gse-, hse- (hrnab-hldah-?). II = hta II ? 185 (p. 186).

III error for rta, hrtah? 341 htoro; cf. 124, 232, 337, 340.

htar I = Tib. thar, be released, escape. See also thar I, hthar I, hko-htar. 146 hnam-hdzamo (pp. 261, 300).

II = Tib. mthar, at the end; mthah, extremity, border. See also thar II, hthar II, 374 -phyań-hto; 392 -ma? (pp. 248-9).

htas = Tib. hthas, hard, solid, stiff; brta, brtas, rtas, expand, widen, be abundant. 256 -kro.

 --prom, become tangled? 121, 148, 257 htoro (pp. 292, 302).

hti I = Tib. gti-mug. gloom, cf. gtibs, thib, thibs, dec.; dark, dense. 12 gñimo; 26 hldyeg-hldyio?; 154 -rgye; 385 hrom-geo (pp. 174, 235-6).

II = Tib. sti, stis, bsti, bstis, stop, rest. See also sti. 19 -hwer; 27 hgru-ma°; 104 sku-hphu°; 153 myi-re°; 171 -hrño; 351 héche° (?); 354 héo°; 390 gdzu° (?) (pp. 174, 236, 257, 285, 309).

htib = Tib. rtib, brtibs, rtib, rtibs, break down; ltib, rdib, collapse. 19 -bžer (pp. 339-40).

htuhu = hthu, assemble, q.v. 100

(pp. 260, 321).

htul = Tib. hdul, btul, thul, gdul, dul, brtul, &c., tame, discipline, conquer. See also hthul. 42 hklom-geo; 170 hkohi-meo; 378 hse-geo (pp. 244, 280, 285).

hte = te, Gerund-suffix, q.v. See under hkan-, htre-, trog-htor-, htrog-hdre (and hdrehe)-, hdre-, rdam-, hnam-, hram-, hse-.

hte-he written for htehe = hte. 322.
hto I a Suffix and 'is'-Verb = to,
q.v. See under klu-, hko-,
hkhru-re-, dguhu-mu-,
hrgam-re-, hrgu-, rgyo-,
rgyoho-, stor-, hnu-, prom-,
bprom-, hpud-, phrom-,
hphrom-, hman-, htshu-,
hdzohu-, hyah-, re-, g-ri-

See also htoni, htoho, htor.
II? = Tib. mtho, high, or tho,
boundary (pp. 248, 261, 332).
210 hdyano; 374 phyano (pp.

248, 280).

htog = hthog, stop, q.v. 235 hbehihbaho (pp. 250, 301).

hton = gtan, gton, q.v. 100 narom°; 119 hno-stor°; 146 hrah°; 190 hphuhi°; 210 hdyan-hto°; 212 hko°; 247 hlad°; 273 hrah°; 358 hrah° (pp. 217, 228, 261, 285, 332).

hton I = (Tib. mthon, 'high'), 223 (-hkon).

II for hto-na. 280, 285 htago. htoni = hto+ni. 150 stor-htaho;

152 stor-ta^o. htom 364 -hphah.

htohi = hto+hi. 324 hkhado.

htohu = hto? (p. 369). 7 hrhoo.

htoho = hto, q.v. See under rgo-,

hcihi-, stor-, hprom-, hrbom-, hrbyo-, rmandze-, hyah-.

htor I written in place of hto-re (see pp. 172-5 and critical notes). See also tor. 96 htan-tao (?); 104 hdono (?); 186 cig-dzeo; 187 hñio (?); 192 cig-dzeo; 225, 245 dgu-hmuo; 341 rgyedhraho; 393 hdamo (?); 394 (?).

 $\Pi = \text{tor I great, q.v. Preceding}$ hkho 217, 218; hkhru-hrgyan 187; hñi 215; sñiń (sñań) 168; 389; hrta (hrtah) 124, 231, 271, 340, 341 (htah); hdro-hño 177, 359, 361; hpu (hpuhu, hphu, hbu) 29, 33, 62, 293, 329; hbron 215 (2), 216, 217, 219, 222, 223 (2), 392; smyi 73; hái-rgo 120: háo 354. Following, as Attribute or Predicate, dgu 75, 76 (2); hgu 113; dgu-hldo 74; 77, 78, 114, 139, 191, 309; cavan 236 (?); trog (htrog) 40, 266; htan-ta 96 (?); hdam 393 (?); hdon 104 (?); hldyo 16, 34, 254; se (143); gse-hlad 240 (?).

-ge the great 364, 387.

 -ḥdo (a Suffix, pp. 186-7) greatness. 185 (p. 139).

III = thor, hthor, bunch, top, dec., q.v. See also tor II. 121 -htas-hproms; 148 spye^o; 236 ca-yan^o (?); 257 -htas-prom (pp. 292, 302).

htos, Preterite form of hto I (p. 198). 278, 279 htago.

htye (conceivably = Chinese t'ien, heaven, sky) (p. 324). See also hthye. 8 sta-hldyano.

htram = Tib. tram, hard, stiff. See also hdram. 31 hñedo (p. 251). htre = hdre, q.v. 94 rgyedo; 248

rgyedo (pp. 140, 291).

htro = Tib. hdro, heat? or the frequent hdro = Tib. hdron, travel. 197 mu-hrogo (pp. 232, 318). See also hdro.

htrog, enemy? (p. 220). See also trog. 40 -htor; 146 hdrago; 326 -hdre; 338 -hdrehe; 376 hrdzao (pp. 320, 327). htron, Imperative (hdrons) of Tib. hdron, travel, or hdren, drons, dc., draw, lead. See also htronhi. 233 hkhab-hgroo (p. 343).

htronhi = htron, q.v., +hi. 224 hrkwa^o; 243 hkhab-gro^o

(p. 343).

htron = Tib. hdron, travel, 327 hrgyah-hdihio (p. 317).

rta horse = Tib. rta. See also rtah, rtahi, hrta, hrtah (pp. 139, 146, 258). With preceding hrah-wehi 139. With following sko-prom 91; hgam-hphar 93, 99, 110, 289; hldag-hsag 389; htsog-ram 90; hwa-hldan 278; yan-stor 79; hsa-g-yer 330, 346; so (hso) -hnah 80, 93, 100, 103; swa 173, 175, 358.

- - ge the (?) horse. 364.

rtah = rta, q.v. With preceding hrah 114, hrah(hra)-we 114, 191. With following hgam 118; htsog-hram 35, 82; hseah-g-yer 166; hswah 298.

rtaḥi = rta(rtaḥ)+ḥi (?). 174 -swa--hldir (p. 320).

rte I? 82 heaho (pp. 259, 320).

II = hrtre, q.v. 182 hrah-rte--hdub (p. 313).

rto = Tib. rdo stone (?). See also hrto. 25 kluo (pp. 138, 223).

grtehe = Hsi-hsia gdeh, hrde, fix, dc. (cf. Tib. hthen, stop; rten, hold; bden, true?). See also hrtehu, gdes. 181 -hta (pp. 156, 197 and nn.).

hrta = rta, rtah, horse, q.v. With preceding htor 124, 232. With following rkwa-hdzam 122; hpā--hphar 187; htsog-hram 119, 123; wa-hdań 258; hwa-hldań 121.

hrtah = rta, rtah, hrta, q.v. With preceding tor, htor, 271, 337, 340; hldi-ma 63, 144; hrah 77; hrah-hwehi 380. With following hgam 118; nan-hwar 354; hpahhphar 388; hldan-hkran 91; hran-glyan 230; swa (swah) 176, 301, 360. hrtehu fix, stop; cf. Hsi-hsia hrde, gdeh ? See also grtehe (pp. 156, 313-14). 265 gśań-tah°.

hrto = rto stone, q.v. 24 klu^o (pp. 138, 223).

hrtre = rte II. 354 hrah-hrtrehdub.

hltan = hldan, ldan, rise, q.v. 93 rgyed-ma^o (p. 291).

hltah I. See hko-hltah. 203 hbrihkoo.

II for hrtah? 250 -hstsah-hyer (p. 278).

hlto, possibly = Tib. ltos, look (or = hldo, a Suffix?) 251 hño-hkhogo (p. 354).

hltom = hldom, subdue, q.v. 88 hdim-htshiso (p. 321).

sta, stah I, a form of the Suffix ta, tah, q.v., which has attracted a -s belonging to its (preceding) word: cf. Tib. -ste/-te (pp. 182-3, 185 n. 1) and sto infra. 85 hhoo; 86 rheo; 306 hbrado; (pp. 220-1, 359).

II = there, also Correlative. See also stah, hstah (p. 201). A, at beginning of clause. 8 -hidyan; 9 -hri; 9, 19, 252 -ra; 252 -g-ri, -ban (pp. 142, 274, 332). B, otherwise. 311 hmane, hrie; 312 g-rihie, hrie, g-rie (pp. 201, 254, 337).

staň = Tib. stan, steň, top, high, up. See also hstaň. 83 hkam^o (?); 88 hldaň^o; 303, 347 -hro

(pp. 270, 321).

stah I = sta I, q.v. 99 slo^o (p. 336), II = sta II, q.v. 20 -hldyan; 312 bri^o (p. 201),

sti = Tib. sti, bsti, thi, hthi, rest. 299 g-rio; 300 hribio (pp. 265– 6, 355). See also hti II.

stin = Tib. stin, bstin, bstins, hthin, rebuke (p. 367). 330, 331 rgyo-hto^o; 335, 336 rgyohohto^o (p. 178).

ste I = te, hte, q.v., with s- as in sta and sto. See also hste (pp. 136, 188-90). 34 htsaho; 72, 73, 75 (2) hwao; 182 gbohuo (pp. 273, 275, 337, 338). II = Tib. sten, bsten, range closely together. See also stehi, stehe (pp. 353-4). 178 -hkehu-prom; 180 -hkohu-bprom; 194 -gdzu (pp. 241-2, 251-2).

stehi = ste II q.v. 54 -htam

(p. 353).

stehe = ste Π q.v. 356 -hdzu (p. 353).

stel = Tib. ster, grant, dec. 181 grtehe-ta^o (pp. 156, 354).

sto I = to, hto I, a Suffix q.v., with s- as in sta and ste (pp. 185-6). 28 hldu°; 29 hyim°; 58 hrgehi°; 84, 85 hño°; 233 htsah°; 235 hňah°; 242 hrgyaň°; 292 hgyaň° (pp. 219-20, 233, 259, 321, 341).

II = Tib. sto, rope. 336 -the-the

(pp. 185, 335).

ston I = Tib. ston, empty. 51 -hkhog (p. 328).

II = Tib. ston, 1000 (pp. 203, 233-4). 247 gse^o.

— -hpon = Tib. ston-dpon, commander of a Thousand-district? 321 -hprom (pp. 233-4, 362).

stom = Tib. ston, autumn (harvest). See also hstom. 255 -hdag; 281 -hkan (pp. 203, 362).

stor = Tib. stor, stray, flee, be lost;
ef. hthor, gtor, btor, scatter;
dor, hdor, cast away. See also
dor, hdor, hstor (pp. 171,
253). Applied to hkyañ 141,
143; hkho-hrño 189; hho 79,
119, 127, 128, 143, 196, 258;
rje 138; hñi ('2'?) 140; hdehi (?)
339; ldyo 140; hldañ-hphyar
125; hpo-hldah 358 (sto-re?);
hpos 141; me (123); hmoñhjoñ (hdzoň) 78, 118, 128, 139,
140; hdzaň 142; se 143; hsohnah 122, 232.

— -ta (tha) (a Suffix, pp. 182-3). 145, 149, 150, 152, 337 htah.

— -to (hto, a Suffix, pp. 184-5). 79, 167, 138, 140 htoho.

— -rño, able to fles (pp. 171, 297). 141 hkyaño.

- - thon, let or cause to flee. 197.

-hdehi-hpyid. 339 (p. 253).

stor-hdor, let be lost (p. 253). 118, 127, 142, 160, 161, 162, 163.

– -ḥdzo-ḥdzeḥi. 338.

— -hgu (dgu), all things lost. 126-7 (pp. 233, 288-90).

 - hprom, make flight, 128 hnoo (pp. 171, 294).

gstor = stor, hstor, q.v. 143 hkyano (p. 297).

-- -ta = stor-ta, q.v. 152 (p. 228). hstan = stan, top, high, up, q.v. 95

hldano (p. 320). hste = ste I q.v. 274 hldyimo (p. 331).

hstom = stom, autumn (harvest). 14 -hkom.

hstor = stor, be lost, d.c., q.v. Applied to hgru-ma 79, hdehi (?) 340, hmoń-hdzoń 64, sohna (hnah) 117, 128.

- - htah = stor-ta, q.v. 337 (p.

335).

— -ḥdeḥi-ḥphyid 340 (p. 253).

-- ma-swań(ḥsań) 337, 340 (p. 344).

- - hdzo-hdzehi = storo, q.v. 338.

Th

tha I = ta, hta, a Suffix, q.v. 149 storo.

II = Hsi-hsia tha, Buddha, Tib. lha, god. 241 -hnu (p. 237).

than = hthan, htan III, plateau, dc. (pp. 246-7). See also hthan. 220 -rdzo (pp. 173, 258).

thar I = htar, be let loose, q.v. See also hthar I. 190 hdroo; 357 -mye (pp. 241, 285).

II = htar II, Tib. mthar, at end, q.v. See also hthar II. 69 -pyan (p. 248).

thin (not in text) = Tib. mthin, blue (p. 131).

the I = Tib. the, lieges, commons; the, thes, belong to. See also hthe, thehe. 103 -kyen; 139 hldano (pp. 228, 322).

II = Tib, then, hthen, draw, pull, control. See also then. 336 sto^o

(p. 335).

then, control = the II, q.v. 207 theo (p. 315).

thehe = the I, lieges, q.v. 160

sňań-ne^o (p. 222).

tho I = Tib. tho, boundary. See also hto II. 109 -rgyam (pp. 280, 340).

II = Tib. mtho, high. See also hto II, htho, hjo IV. 132 hldag-nago.

thon = gtan, gton, hton, let go, drc. q.v. 197 storo.

thom-thom, cf. Tib. hthom, hthoms, be confused, dizzy, grope? 183 bsogo.

thor I = htor II, great, q.v. 220
-hbron.

II = Tib. thor, anything gathered to a single point; thor-cog (gtsug, tshugs), gtsug-tor (thor), spyi-tor (gtor), topknot, turban; hthor-mtho, lofty peak. See also htor III, hthor (pp. 149, 302-4). 71 hmo-ma°.

III = II ? 235 rñe-lado; 242 hehahyaño (p. 303).

thol (not in text) (p. 133).

thwan = htan II, Tib. than, measure, power, q.v.; dban-than, might, fate. See also hthwan (pp. 346-7). 97 bano; 98-hkhor (pp. 342, 345).

thrah. 53 hphon-geo.

hthan I = than and htan III, plateau, dec., q.v. 130 -rdzo; 131 -hgam; 132 -rdzo; 133 -hrgam; 221 -hgam (pp. 243, 246-7, 259).

II = htań II and thwań, measure power, q.v. 132 hldio; 133 (2) hldio; 222 hyah-htaho; 286 (2) hyaho; 287 g-yaho; 288 hyaho; 288 hdzańo; 289 hgar-hpuo; 290 hso-hnaho (pp. 171, 216, 228, 229, 293, 296, 323, 342).

 (I) -phu-ḥkam. 130 ḥthaňº.
 (I) -le-tsa (ḥtsa, tshaḥ). 131, 219, 220 (p. 272).

III = gtan, gton, htan I. 57 hrkas^o (p. 248).

htham = htam I, q.v. 227 -rah place of union, or assemblage. hthar I = thar I, be let loose, q.v. 195 -mye (p. 241).

II = thar II, at end, q.v. 348 -phyan (pp. 248, 343).

hthu = Tib. hdu, sdu, hthu, &c., gather, assemble, &c. See also htuhu, hldun (pp. 321-2). 140 ldyo-storo (pp. 254, 256, 326).

hthun = Tib. thun, small. 145 hgo^o (pp. 261, 300).

hthul = htul, conquer, tame, &c., q.v. 67 ru-glań-ge^o; 378 rkom^o (p. 318).

hthus, Aorist form of hthu, q.e. 156 hjim-tao (pp. 280, 322).

hthe = the I, thehe, lieges, &c., q.v. 335 kruhu^o; 383 hyañ^o (p. 322).

htho = tho II, high, q.v. 374 hpahhwe^o (p. 280).

hthog = Tib. thogs, hdogs, btags, &c., fasten, impede; dog, narrow, danger, &c. (p. 301). See also hthogs. 149 stor-ta^o, stortha^o (pp. 299-301, 313).

hthogni = hthog+ni, q.v. 149.

hthogs, Aorist form of hthog, q.v. 145 stor-ta^o; 182 hlab-ta^o (pp. 156, 299-301).

hthon = Tib. mthon, see. 92 pyi--hse; 135 gsehe-hldio (p. 321).

hthon I, error for htoni (152) or hthog-ni (149)? or = hthon II? 152 gstor-ta^o (p. 228).

II = Tib. hthon, come forth, &c., hdon, send forth, &c.? 152 gstor-ta^o (?); 379 spehi-ge^o (p. 228).

hthor = thor II, htor III, tor II, gather to a point, dc., q.v. 62 hrihio; 63 mo-mao; 144 mo-mao (pp. 302-3).

hthwan = thwan and htan II, q.v. 280 hkhab-rgye-geo (p. 342).

hthye = htye, q.v. 20 -hldyan.

D

dam = Tib. dam, bound, tight, bond, dc.; gdams, advice, dc.; hdam, choose; hdom, exhort, select; sdom, sdoms, bsdams, bsdoms. dec., bind, fasten, obligation, vow, dec. See also hdam, hdom II, rdom, Idom, hldom I. 46

-rma (p. 286).

dim = Tib. hthim, thim, gtim, stim, be lost, dissolve, evaporate, be absorbed in. See also gdim, ddylm, hldim, hldylm. 95 -tshis (pp. 320-1, 359).

do I a Suffix (pp. 186-7). See also hdo, Ido, hldo. 86 sñañº.

II, cf. Tib. Ido, side; Ido-Ido, for a short time (occasionally?).

— -1do. 76, 353 (p. 322).

doho, a Suffix = do I, q.v. 80 hrdzumo (pp. 271, 293).

don I = Tib. hdon, depart, begone. See also hdon I, Idon, hldon. 89 hsoro; 392 hgyano (p. 321); 367 hyan-hyoo.

II, extrametrical and accordingly different from I: very possibly therefore a Conjunction = Tib. don, a variant of dan, practically = whereupon 176 hbres; 351 gtsobo.

dor = Tib. hdor, drive or throw away, always in the compound verb; stor-dor (hdor), q.v. 160 -yon. See also hdor (p. 253).

dwań = Tib. dwańs, lustre, bright, clean, force of language. 280 gnah-ma°; 364-5 hkah° (2) (p. 342). See also rwań.

dyaň, perhaps not different from hldyaň, q.v. 183 hehi-hdoo (pp. 172, 332). See also hdyaň.

drag = Tib. drag, vehement, fierce, powerful, eminent. See also hdrag (p. 300), 163 sri-hboo (p. 216).

dro = Tib. hdron, travel, go. See hdro I (p. 294).

— -ño, travelling trader. 174 toro. See also hdro-hño.

droho = dro, q.v. 105 htsoo (p. 261).

gdag I = Tib. bdog, own, acquire, bdag, master, self, perhaps kept distinct from gdogs, btags, dc., fasten, affix, and from gdags, bright, daylight. See also hdag. 142 -hgom, -hphar; 200, 204, 206 hee-hmu^o (pp. 221-2). T = Tib. gdags, sunlit! 345

H = Tib. gdags, sunlit? 345 -yan-la-po (pp. 269-70).

gdah = Tib. gdah, be actual or possible. See also hdah II. 191 -hnah; 396 -kum (?), -hgam. ? 43 gdah-hdih (pp. 244, 315).

gdim = dim, vanish, &c., q.v. 88
-pyi-hse; 89 -phyi-hse; 94 -chis
or -tshis; 100 -hdzam-hdzim
(pp. 320-1, 359).

gdes, Aorist form of grtehe, q.v. 260 hdom (†)° (pp. 319, 343).

gdod = Tib. dod, be prominent, emerge. 186 g-rio (p. 331).

ddyim (<bdyim?) = dim, gdim, q.v. 95 -phyi-hse.

hdag = gdag I, possess, acquire, q.v. 254 hpraho (?); 255 stomo; 259 hyogo; 260 hdraho; 261 hnaho, hgohoo; 390 khyaho (pp. 192, 202, 239, 242, 261, 283, 342-3, 357).

hdań = hldań (?) 258 wa° (p. 221).
hdad = Tib. dad, devoted to (p. 227).
304 hyah°; 306 hyah-hdahd (p. 254).

hdab = Tib. hdebs, btab, gdab, put, dc. See also hldab II. 369 mehi-rao (pp. 318, 331).

hdam = dam, bind, dc., q.v. See also rdam, hldam, 204 pyuphya°; 326 hse-htah°; 328 hkhoh-htah°; 329 hkho-hdah°; 346, 351 sleg (pp. 140, 319).

— -to (a Suffix, pp. 184-6). 68 (pp. 250, 319).

hdah I = Tib. mdah, arrow. See also hldah. 58, 59 -hpog (pp. 300-1, 343).

II = gdah, be actual or possible, q.v. 108 hdiho; 329 hkhoo (? see hkho-hltah) (p. 221).

- ta (a Suffix, pp. 182-3). 283hgah-rago.

hdar = Tib. hdar, shiver, tremble, dec. (pp. 319-20). See also hldar. 19 -hti-hwe-re; 38, 368 hrnamo (pp. 319-20).

hdi, this (Tib. hdi). See also hdih, hldi, hldihi (p. 201). 107, 198. hdim = dim, gdim, &c., vanish, q.v. 88 -htshis (pp. 320-1).

hdih = hdi, this, q.v. 43 gdaho.

hdihi = hdi, this, q.v. 184 -maghnor; 327 hrgyaho; 391 hnaho.
hdun = Tib, sdun, be distressed, or

hdun = Tib. gdun, be distressed, or ltun, fall. 94, 95 (pp. 320-1).

hdub = Tib. dub, be fatigued, sink. 67 me°; 70 me°; 182 hrah-rte°; 354 hrah-hrte° (pp. 173, 272-3).

ḥde I = Tib. bde, good fortune; lde, warm oneself? See also ḥdeḥi, ḥlde I, ḥldeḥi, ḥldeḥe (pp. 278-9). 29 -ḥyim-sto; 208 htsharo (pp. 234, 259).

-- ta (a Suffix, pp. 182-3). 158

-rgyen (p. 145).

II = Tib. hded, follow, drive, pursue? 12 hldab-hde-hde, possibly onomatopoeic; 167 hranhraho (p. 318).

hdehi = hde I, q.v. 102 mag^o; 339 stor^o; 340 hstor^o (p. 301).

hdo, a Suffix (pp. 184-6) = do, ldo, hldo, to, hto, q.v. 65, 67 hyaho; 86, 87 hramo; 88 hcogo; 180 glabo; 183, 353 hchio; 185 htoro (pp. 139, 186, 228, 276, 288, 332, 340).

hdon I = don I, depart, q.v. 104 hmu^o (p. 285).

II = Tib. gdon, mdons, face? 13 -hri (p. 265).

hdon = Tib. don, purpose, 185 hsudo (pp. 139, 186).

hdom I = Tib. dom, bear. See also hldom II. 162, 171 hldyo°; 294, 297 hrihi° (pp. 246-7, 254, 327).

H = Tib. dom, hdom, &c., q.v. See dam and also Idom, hldom I (pp. 318-19). 213 hboso; 260 hraño (? lect.) (pp. 202, 319).

(I) -ḥgu (a Suffix, pp. 190, 258).303, 304, 312 ḥguḥu (pp. 254,

327).

hdoho = hdo. 37 hramo.

hdor = dor, in stor-dor (hdor), q.w. 118, 127, 142, 161, 162, 163 store; 209 hldan-rgyee (pp. 213, 245, 253, 289, 361). hdwa = Tib. dwa, wretched. 148 spye-htoro (p. 302).

hdyaň = Idyaň, hldyaň, high, fly, depart, q.v. 210 -hto; But see also pyaň (phyaň). 353 hehi--hdoo (pp. 200, 261, 276, 332).

hdra I = Tib. hdra, like; ei-hdra, what-like? dc. 196 hsuo (pp. 245-6; but see also hdrah).

II = Tib. dra, net. See also hdrah. 356 hplano (pp. 241-2). hdrag = drag, fierce, drc., q.v. 146

-htrog (pp. 299-300).

hdraň = Tib. hdren, draň, droň, &c., lead, drag. 147 hphom-te^o; 254 -re (pp. 300-2).

hdrab = Tib. hdrad, dbrad, hbrab, snatch, scratch. 140 -stor; 173 meo (pp. 252 n., 254, 256, 326).

--hwa-ḥran, a class of clawing creatures. 162, 172 hwah (pp. 254, 256).

hdram = htram, hard, stiff, q.v. 102 -hmu (p. 285).

hdrah = hdra II, net, q.v. 195 plano; 260 -hdag (pp. 241-2).

hdru = Tib. dru-bu and ogu, clew, skein, or dro, net. 220 -hjar (pp. 173, 272, 369).

hdre = induce = Tib. hdren, lead, dc. (p. 262). See also hdrehe, htre. 87 rgyed^o; 326 htrog^o (pp. 140, 340, 291).

hdrehe = hdre, q.v. 338 htrogo.

hdro I = dro, travel, go, q.v. 105 hgo°; 106 hkab°, hkhāb°; 169 -hbron; 183 -hphor; 188-9 hna°, hnan° (?); 266 -hkohnag; 352 -hkus; 353 -hphor (pp. 157, 260, 276, 285, 332).

II = htro, heat, q.v.? See also hdro I. 188-9 hña°, hnañ°? (pp. 252, 285).

hdrom. 65 hpuº (pp. 157, 187, 219).
rdan = Tib. sdan, hate, anger? Cf.
hrdan. 211 rog-hjiº (p. 260).

rdam = Tib. sdam, bsdam &c. See dam, 322 hrneo (p. 319).

rdebe = Tib. sde, class, company,

district. See also hrde. 213 hbehi-tyano (pp. 253, 270, 353).

rders = Tib. bdar, rdar, examine closely, or sdar, timid? 107 bwaro (p. 350).

rdo = Tib. sdo, venture. See also hrdoho. 84 hño-sto-geo (pp.

186, 259).

hrdaghi = hrdag, Tib. rdeg, brdeg, smite, +hi. 214 hstsah-hbrado (p. 253).

ḥrdan = rdan, hate, anger, q.v. 155 rke-hldaho; 332 (p. 305).

hrde=rdehe, class, species, &c., q.v. — -hldah (a Suffix, p. 183). 301 g-rio (p. 270).

hrdoho = rdo, venture, q.v. 165 hrkah-myi^o (p. 296).

hrdyan. 202 hcha-hruo.

hrdyam = Tib. gżom? (p. 350). 137 hbri-re^o (pp. 218, 338).

Ida, a Suffix = Idah, hlda, hldah, q.v. 84 rkah^o (p. 183, cf. hkhah--hldah, p. 218).

Idań, rise, stick, prop, support = Tib. lań/ldań. See also hldań (pp. 286-9). 80, 138 -rdze; 343 -hdebi (pp. 227, 228, 256, 287).

--pyer, supporting, See also hldan-phyer, 65 (pp. 186, 228, 287).

Idah = lda, hlda I, II, hldah, q.v. 43 hrah^o (pp. 313, 334).

Idir = hldir I, q.v. 328 hnah-hpago (pp. 196, 317).

Ide (not in text) (pp. 136, 147-8, 188-92). See hlde, hldehi, hldehe.

Ideḥi (not in text) (pp. 133, 136, 188-92). See ḥldeḥi, &c.

Ideḥu (not in text) (pp. 134, 368). See Ide, &c.

Ido = hldo, hldoh, hldohu, hldoho, q.v. 76 do°; 139 dgu°; 353 do° (pp. 186, 322). See also dgu (I) -hldo.

Idon = den I, hdon I, hldon, depart, dec., q.v. 161 kyu^o (p. 253).

See also kyuo, hkyuo.

Idom = dam, hdom II, hldom I, bind, dec., q.v. 94, 95 gdimchis^o, dim-tshis^o (pp. 320-1). Idyań = hidyań, q.v. (pp. 331-3), 78 hjo^o; 178 -hkah; 180 -glab (pp. 179, 244).

Idyo = hldyo, q.v. See also Idyohu. 140 -stor; 383 -ro (pp. 256,

326-8, 331).

ldyoňo (reading?) = ldyoň+o. ? = dyaň, hdyaň, or hldyoň? 318 hsli-hdzaňo.

Idyoḥu = Idyo, hldyo, hldyoḥo, q.v. 256 -ma-hbyohu (p. 327).

gldag = hldag, back, load, q.v. 52 -hce-rgyan; 136 -nag (pp. 259-60, 317).

hlda I, a Suffix (p. 183). See also Ida, Idah, hldah. Possibly derived from hlda II. 203 śor^o; 240 gse^o.

II = Tib, da, there (p. 201). 5 hraño; 8 hrahño; 195 -hko

(pp. 201, 241).

hldag = Tib. Itag, back of neck; Itan, load (pp. 259-60, 317). 45 -hbah-hldon; 52 -khri; 389 -hsag (p. 317).

— -nag (gnag), black-back = Yak. 112, 129 gnag° and nag°; 130, 132, 134, 135 (pp. 259-60, 291).

See also gldag.

hldan, rise, stick, prop, support = Tib. lan, ldan, rise; gdan, rdan, sdan, peg, rack, rail (pp. 286-9). See also ldan.

A. rise (general), as Verb with hkah- 163, rgyed-ma 90, 102, 105, 108, 231, rne- 197, hrne-119, 141, 144, hmah- 112, mor-87, htsog- 88 (htso), 95, hsahyer- 141. In Compound Verb or nominal phrase hldan-hphyar 126, 254 (phyer), -hgyehi 209, -kran (hkran) 91, 111, 112, 124 (3), 125 (2), 126 (2), 127 (2). As attribute with -me 123, -hrgya 60 (?), -rman 27 (?), -hkhan 198 (?), -slah 125, -the 139. See also hgru-hldanand hwa(hwah) -hmah -hldan.

B. As Noun = stick, post, &c.
-rman 27 (?), -hrgyu 60 (?),
-hkhan 198 (?), -phyi-ske 79,

143 (pyi), -myi-seg 159 (pp. 145-6, 259, 286, 341, 345).

hldań-ra. 270 hwah^o; 278 hwa^o (pp. 178, 339).

hldanh written for hldah or hldan.
hldan = Tib. lan, lon, ldon, glan,
glon, retaliate, repay, return
(Trans. and Intrans.) (pp. 31718). See also hldon. 187, 188,
189 hldam-reo; 193 -re-morreo; 264 (2) hdzam-reo; 273
hjam-reo; 274 (2) hdzam-rec;
328 hpyaho; 377 hpaho (pp. 297,
305, 317, 331).

hldab I = Tib. hdab, leaf, wing, &c. 12 -hde-hde (p. 318).

II = Tib. hdebs, btab, cast, put, found, cf. rdebs, sdebs. See also hdab. 197 rmano (p. 318).

hldam, tame, dec. = dam, hdam, hdom, ldom, q.v. 187 (2), 188 -re (pp. 305, 317-18, 331).

hldah 1, a Suffix (p. 183) = lda, ldah, hlda, q.v. Cf. Tib. ldan; or derived from II? Appended to hko- 202; rke- 155; hkhah-137; rńe- 310; hrńe- 303; hrde-301; hrnab- 32; hrnab-ma- 165; hpo- 358; rpehi- 286; hbañ- 170; hbroń- 182; hbom-rbo- 112; hmañ- 33; hstsa-re- 249; hstsah-298; hdzah- 382, 383; g-yog-200; hsab- 164.

II = hlda II, Tib. da, there (p. 201). 6 hraño; 316 -hrgam (?); 182 hbroño (pp. 313, 319, 323).

III? = Tib. mdah, arrow = hdah I, q.v. 278, 285 -htag-hto.

hldar = hdar, shiver, tremble, q.v. 353 -hdzam-re; 30, 31, 32 hbraho, or is hldar here Locative of hlda I, hldah I? (pp. 319-20).

hldas = Tib. hdah, hdas, go beyond, pass. 83 htso (p. 320).

hldi I = Tib. hdi, this. See also hdi, hdihi. 115 hpo?; 132 hbri°, hre°; 133 hyah°, rgyeb°; 135 gsehe°; 137 ro°; 175 mu°; 225, 236, 244, 246 hrah°; 207 the then°; 87, 216, 237, 243, 246, 248 -rgyed-hrar; 104 -hgan; 108 -hdah.

II = Tib, ldin, float, soar. See also hldin, hldis. 63, 71, 144 -ma-hrtah (p. 320).

III = Tib. gži, land, estate? 10

-hrkah (p. 329).

hldin = hldi II. 160 hpu-myi^o (pp. 145-6, 217, 320).

hldim = dim, gdim, ddyim, q.v. 199 chim^o; 301 -hphu; 310 -hmań-hto (pp. 320-1).

hldiḥi = hldi III, land, q.v. 195 -su-hldon (pp. 201, 245, 329-

30).

hldir I. Locative of hldi, this, q.v. 117 -htsag; 229 sñañ-ñe^o (?); 248 htam^o; 326 hñah-hpag^o; 328 sñañ-ñene^o (?); 337 hrtah^o (?); 341 rñe-hprom^o (pp. 217, 222).

II = hldi-re, from hldi II, q.v. 174 swa^o; 229, 328, 337, 341? See under I (p. 320).

hldis, Aorist of hldi, q.v. 58 me-na^o (pp. 320, 358).

hldu = Tib. hdu, hdus, sdu, sdus, hthu, hthus, &c., collect, &c. (pp. 321-2). 14 htano; 19 -hro; 28 -sto; 70 geog-hldeo; 238 hseheo (p. 247).

hldug = Tib. hdug, sit, remain? or sdug, dear, comely? or stug, wretched, afflicted? 103 thekyeno (p. 322).

hldun = Tib. hdun, assemble. 284 hrim-hdzom-htaho; 354 hsohti-ge-htaho (pp. 282, 321).

hlduhu = Tib. gdu, covet. 44 gsio; 51 -ce-rgyan; or is this hlduhu = hldu, amass? (pp. 322, 328).

hlde I = Tib. hde, bde, lde, ldehu, happiness, high fortune, dc.; perhaps also lde, warm oneself. See also hde I, hldehi, hldehe, hrlehi (pp. 278-9). 77 -ge; 370, 371 -ge-htah (p. 309).

II = Tib. lde, warm oneself? 70 geogo (pp. 247, 249, 321).

III ? = I, be good or necessary. 57 hrkas-hthano (p. 248).

hidehi = hide I, q.v. 318, 319, 320, 321 -hswah, -swah, -hswa (p. 318). hldehe = hlde I, hldehi 370, 372 -ge-htah (pp. 278, 318).

hldo I, a Suffix = do I, hdo, ldo (pp. 186-7, 322-3). See also hldoh. 74, 77, 78, 114, 191, 309 dgu°; 155 hgab°; 177 hpo°; 342 klu°; 355 hnu°; 375 seg--sme°; 381 slod° (pp. 201, 222, 232, 256, 274, 282-3, 316, 327).

II, perhaps error for do-ldo (l. 76).
77 -hdzo[-]r[e].

hldog = Tib. log/ldog, turn away, rebel, return (p. 323), 18 hyogso; 43, 44 smyio; 142 -stor (p. 323); 286 -hyah; 317 -hpo; 317 -g-yaho (pp. 224, 295, 323, 334).

hldon = don I, hdon I, ldon, depart, dec., q.v. 45 hbaho; 82 hmog-reo; 134 skoo; 175 nuglano; 195 hldihi-suo; 214 kyuo; 253 hbaho; 256 kroo; 287, 291-4 hkyano; 299 hseo; 302, 303, 308, 310 (2), 311 hgaho; 334 hrogo; 339 hkyuo (pp. 245, 270, 297, 298, 329, 338).

hldon, probably Imperative of hldan, return, repay, &c., q.v. 370 (2), 371 hlde-ge-htah^o; 370, 372 hldehe-ge-htah^o (pp. 278, 318).

hldom I = dam, hdom II, ldom, bind, &c., q.v. 9 hrah-hyos°; 41, 143, 350 na°; 66 hkah°; 259 rgo°; 372 hkrug-kyah° (pp. 145, 297, 299, 318–19).

II = hdom I, bear? 299 g-rihiº.
hldoh, a Suffix = do I, hdo, ldo, hldo I, q.v. 154 blahº (p. 222).

hldohu = Tib. lo, circle or troop? (pp. 322-3). See also hlo, hloho, hrloho. 277 -hjam--rho; 300 hrimo; 319 hrim-reo (pp. 265, 281).

hldoho? (p. 294). 110 hso-hnaho.
hldor, probably for hldo I (Suffix)+
re (metre). 357 hldyaho (p. 329).

hldya, water, flow = Tib. bżah, moist. See also hldyah. 51 -hkan-hte (pp. 328-9).

hldyań = Tib. bżeń, bżeńs, bżań, raise, erect, rise up, opposed to żoń, lower, deepened; gżońs, valley, and perhaps connected with ldiń, fly, soar. In the Nam language meanings may provisionally be classified as follows: (pp. 331-3). See also hdyań, ldyań.

A. rise fly, depart. 9, 13, 14, 19 hrio; 10 hldi-hrkaho; 12 htio; 13 hrago; 14 htan-hlduo; 38 -hdzan; 43 pra-hreheo; 48, 368 gse-hcano, gsehe-cano; 150, 161, 218, 243 hpuo, but see also under C; 209 hphyuo; 229, 237 rhe-hkhyamo; 365 rgyero; 282 nao (?).

B. high or upper (cf. Tib. stod). 8 -htye (?); 122, 369, 372, 387 -hyu, -hyuhu; 178, 179, 366, 391 -hyan-hyo; 186 -g-ri; 386 -hro.

C. As Proper Name of a Hldyan = Tib. Hjan, people of the high (sc. Tang-hsiang) country. 271 -ma, -pah; 365 -hkah; 369 -hgohdzin. (Here should be considered, as either denoted or hinted at, the occurrences with -hyu (hyuhu), -hyan-hyo and -hro, cited under B, and those with -hpu under A).

D. doubtful. 316 hyano; 144 -htah.

hldyah = hldya, water, flow, q.v. 356 -hldyah; 357 -hldo -r[e] (p. 329).

hldyi, conceivably = Tib. bži, four. 26 hldyego (p. 330).

hldyim I = dim, gdim, &c., evaporate, &c., q.v. 89 me^o; 274 -hste a Suffix, pp. 188-90 (pp. 321, 331).

II = Tib. žim, sweet? 255 hdzaho (pp. 327, 331).

hldyihi I, conceivably = Tib. ži, be allayed. 48 hphu-hšego: 375 šeg-sme-hldo-rbyio (p. 330).

II = hldi I, this. 392-rgyed-hrah. hldyeg, conceivably 'quarter' (of space) = Tib. gżogs = phyogs. 26 -hldyi (p. 330).

hldyo = Tib. hjo, bžos, bžo, gžo,

&c., cow, milk, to milk: used apparently in the senses of cattle, milk out (extract) and cattle country (also hidyo-ro, equivalent to Tib. hbrog) (pp. 256-7, 326-8). See also Idyo, Idyohu, hidyoho. 16, 34, 50, 254 -htor, -tor; 36 -hrje; 162, 171 -hdom; 172 meheo; 304 hmano; 384 -hro (pp. 256-7, 267, 275, 326-7).

hldyon, low country = Tib. żoń, gżońs, correlative to hldyań, q.v.

387 -ro (pp. 331-2).

hldyoho = ldyo, hldyo, q.v. 355 hnu-hldoo (pp. 256, 327).

N

na I, a Postposition = Tib. na, appended to A: Nouns, &c., with the signification 'in'; B: Subordinate clauses stating circumstances; C: Sentences, with signification as in B, but more general and vague ('this being so'), as a Particle of transition or even of termination (cf. Sanskrit iti) (pp. 179-81, 194). A 58 (2) meo; 107, 154 (p. 194). B 50, 51, 52, 54, 86, 98, 103, 124, 147, 169, dec. C 77, 78, 114, 171, 172, 173, 174, 176, 177, 178, 182, 183, 209, 220, 221, 222, 225, 231, 236, 237, 241, 244, 245, 248, 251, 253, 254, 257, 258, 262, 280, 285, 294, 296, 302, 304, 309, 313, 328, 353, 360, 361, 369, 382, and possibly other instances.

II = Tib. gnas, place (pp. 237-8).
 See also hnah, gnah, and nah,
 hnah. 41, 143, 350 -hldom; 53
 -hce; 56, 96 -ge; 86 -spe; 100
 -rom; 107 -hrom; 358 -hgo,
 -hgon (?); 365 soo (pp. 238,

297, 299).

III = Tib. na, sickness? 156 -rog; 254 hmyio (pp. 239, 328). See also hnah II.

IV = Tib. na, meadow? or merely = na II ? 33 -htsah (pp. 239, 275). nag I = Tib. nag, speech, voice (p. 360). See also hnag I. 199 hśańo: or nag, black ?; 202 hñeo (?); 262 g-raho (?); 276, 278 hdzamo (pp. 283, 313, 314).

II = Tib. nag, gnag, black. See also gnag, hnag II. 129, 130, 132, 134, 135, 136 bldago, gldago (pp. 242, 259-60, 342).
 III = Tib. rnags, cash? See also

hnag III. 234 hglaho.

naň I = T(b, naň, within (pp. 229– 30). See also hnaň. 104, 115, 236 -re; 305 -hyu; 352 -pa; 354 -hwar (pp. 217, 252, 285).

II = Tib. nań, to-morrow? 181 -gsań (pp. 156, 229-30).

nad = Tib. nad, disease, 193, 194 gsoo (p. 238).

nar, probably = Tib. nar, strength, grim, strong, rather than nar, snar, long. 49 rnamo; 72 pao; 239 hgrah-nuo (pp. 313, 361). See also hnar.

ni, a Particle used, A, after a part antithetically emphasized in a sentence; B, at end of a sentence to mark similarly the end or beginning of a topic; in use B always extra-metrical. See pp. 177-8, where the occurrences are cited. See also hnio.

nu I, strength, ability = Tib. nus. See also hnu I, hnus (p. 237). 239 hgrab^o (p. 313).

II. probably = young, cf. Tib. nu, younger, opposite of phu. 359 -glan. See also hnu II.

ne, good = Gyārūng ka-snē, dc. See also ḥne (pp. 221-3). 66, 160 sñaño; 113 gtseo; 141 ḥrñe--hldaño; 152 g-yaḥ-htsao; 202 -heer; 206 rṅyeo; 269 ḥwaḥo; 301 rňeo; 317 hwao (pp. 221-2, 228, 270, 274, 318, 321, 338, 339, 359).

nehu = nu Π, in sense of 'new', or = ne. 41 hgwa°; 74 hkuhu°, wehi°; 257 -hso-bos; 258 hwam° (pp. 250, 302).

nehe, perhaps onomatopoeic, 'bleat'. 275 twan-hdzamo (p. 343). nohu. 41 hnudo.

nor = Tib. nor, property, &c. (pp. 361-2). 151 -gso (pp. 224-5, 241). See also hnor II.

gnag = nag II, black, q.v. 129

hldago (p. 263).

gnaḥ, place = na II and ḥnaḥ I, q.e. (pp. 237-9). 69, 70 laº; 179 -goñ; 280 -ma-dwañ; 281 hldyań-maº; 367 -hgoň (pp. 193, 247, 342).

hna = na II, hnah I, gnah, q.v. 68

-hlam (p. 238).

hnag I=nag I, speech, dec., q.v. 104 htshab, speech-deputy (p. 360).

II = nag II, black, q.v. 112 hldag^o; 162, 171 hdom^o; 267 hko^o (pp. 253, 260, 263, 291, 327).

III = nag III, cash, q.v.? 232, 233 hglah^o.

ḥnañ = nañ, within, q.v. 188 hña; 189 (2) -hdro; 225, 244, 305, 308, 311 -re (pp. 231-2, 252, 285, 337).

— -ra = ḥnañ, q.v., +re (p. 229). ḥnad. 46 re-mao.

hnan? = Tib. nan, pressure, urgency; gnon, press, suppress, or snon, bsnan, augment? 281 stom-hkań-geo; 350 hcihihtoho-geo; 351 hšehe-hti-geo (p. 186).

hnam I = Tib. gnam, nam, sky. 5, 6, 8, 37 hran-hldah (hlda)°

(p. 246).

II = Tib. ñams, damaged, weakened, destroyed. 83 hnam--hte-hŝah; 126 hldań-krań°; 259 hpah-hrgam° (pp. 262, 288-9, 361).

III = Tib. ñams, thought, soul, spirit, courage. 145 -hdzamo (pp. 261, 299-300, 361).

hnah I = na II, gnah, hna, place, q.v., or confused with hah, home, q.v. 33 -hran (1); 40 -me; 99 -htsog; 113 -hpon; 191 gdaho; 391 -hdihi, hgyaho (pp. 233, 238-9, 244, 291-3, 284, 315, 346). See also so(hso)-hnah (hna, na). II = na III, sickness, q.v. 261 -hdag; 120 htsog-hram^o (pp. 239, 262, 283, 291-2).

III spring (season) = Mo-so ni? 159 -hehos (pp. 145-6).

hnar = nar, strength, grim, dec., q.v. or possibly = Tib. gñer, provide, execute (?) (p. 361). 112 hldań-hkrań°; 224 g-wah--hrsań°; 233 glah-hlad°; 243 gse-hlad° (pp. 230, 343, 361).

ḥni = ni ? or ne ? 80 smyio (p. 227). ḥnu I = nu I strength, ability, &c. q.v. 72 gśi-bromo; 241–2 smyio, thao (pp. 237, 342).

H = nu H, q.v. 174 (2), 175-6,

179, 359-60, 366 -glań.

ḥnus, Aorist of ḥnu = Tib. nu suckle (or drip?). 16, 34 hldyo--htor-ge^o; 40 hldyoge^o (pp. 275, 327, 328, n. 1).

ḥne = ne, good, q.v. 86 -rñeḥi; 146 rñeº; 155 rñeº; 170 hbañ--hldaḥº; 382 hdza-hldaḥiº (pp. 221-2, 275, 288, 316).

ḥnen = Tib. ñen, dangerous. 210 hwań-ta^o (p. 361).

hner = Tib. gñer, procure, seek for ? 7, 20 gśogo (p. 361).

ḥno = Tib. no in g-yul-no, battle front (no)? 58 (2) mago (pp. 194, 300-1). See also ḥnor II.

hnon, possibly = Tib. non, grieve, or gnon, be ashamed. 134 hkhogo.

ḥnom = Tib. nom, enjoyments, possessions, dc.; snom, grasp (p. 277). 151 sid-rgyań°; 155 hwam°; 165 -hsah; 209 hnomta (p. 335).

ḥnor I = Tib. nor, err, foolish. 163 ḥnor[-r]e; 314, 315 -ḥdzań; 317 -ḥldog; 366 g-yer^o (pp. 224-5, 228, 262, 323, 332, 338-9).

II, for hno-re in mag-hnor; 48-9, 145, 184 (pp. 194, 299-301).

hrnab = Tib. mnab, mnabs, food; rñab, be hungry; brnab, covet. 32 -hldah, a Suffix, p. 183? 165 -ma-hldah (p. 296).

hrnas = Tib. brñas, despised? 214 hrwehi-gtsu-ge^o. (p. 345). pa = Tib. dpah, brave, hero, dc. See also hpah I. 72 -nar; 109 -la-la; 352 naño (pp. 239, 280).

pah = pa? 271 hldyano.

pahi = pa, or possibly hpha, father, +hi. 262 gsas^o (pp. 239, 283).

pu-glo (hlo), bellows. See also hphuh-hklo. 116 hrano; 135 rano ohlo (pp. 284-5).

pun = Tib. phun, heap; dpun, host, d:c. 204 -te, a Suffix, pp. 188-

90 (pp. 144, 300).

po = Tib. pho, male, man (pp. 217-19), See also hpo I, hpho. 181 rbyoo (pp. 155-6, 333).

-- rbom 317. See hpoo, hboo

(pp. 224, 323, 338-9).

por I, perhaps = hpor, phor, hphor, release, q.v. 349 -ge. See critical note.

II. written for po (Tib. spo, pho, top)+re. See also hphor, phor, spo I. 291 htsah^o; 345 la^o (p. 269).

pwań, conceivably = Tib. dpań, witness (p. 344). 361 kehuprom^o; 362 gehu-prom^o.

pyaň = Tib. dpyaň, hphyaň, something suspended, e.g. partitions. See also phyaň. 69 tharo (pp. 247-8).

pyar = Tib. phyar, hphyar, lift, hoist, roof. See also pyer, phyer, hphyar (p. 287). 341 -ma-swan

(p. 353).

pyi = Tib. phyi, beyond, outside, subsequent; hphyi, be late. See also phyi. 88, 92 hse; 143 hldano; 201 rjes (pp. 274, 288, 321, 359).

pyu. Cf. hphyu? 204 -phya-hdam.pyer = pyar, q.v. 65 ldańo (pp. 186, 228, 287, 353).

pra. Cf. hpra, hprah, hphrah. 43 -hrehe.

prom, Auxiliary Verb = perform, carry out, &c. (pp. 137, 199-200). See also bprom, hprom, hproms, phrom, hphrom. Appended to Verbs or Actionwords, hkan 151, kehu (hkehu, gehu, hke) 176, 177, 178, 360, 361, 362, 366, hkohu 166, 168, 169, 171, 172, 174, 177, 180, 359, 361, sko 91, hkhob 322, hnom-ta 209, htas 122, 148, 257, stor 79, 128, hdro 170, gsu 65: also to rne, evil, 341; hnohdan, 258, face-rest; ston-hpon, an office, 321.

plaň = Tib. plaň/sraň, street, straight, and so 'line' (pp. 241-2). See also hplaň, phlaň. 182 -na; 195 -hdrah (p. 155-6).

plim-plam, let loose? (p. 192). 120 hśańo (pp. 291-2).

bprom, Aorist of prom, q.v. (p. 196). 168, 180 hkohu^o.

hpā (read hpaḥ?) = pa, brave, &c.? 187 hrtao.

hpag, low, cf. Tib. dpag, measure, depth (pp. 195-6, 226, 349). See also rpag, hrpag. 326, 328 hñaho; 384 hrsehio (pp. 226, 239).

hpań I = Tib. hphen, hphańs, d:c., throw. 283 -tsa-ge.

II = Tib. pañ, spañ, phañ, lap. See also phañ, hphañ. 290 hribio (†) 291, 308 g·rio (†); 324 g·yaho (pp. 228, 263, 270, 298, 340).

III = Tib. phańs, dpańs, spańs, height? 290, 291, 308 (?). See

under II.

IV, conceivably = Tib. dpan, witness. See also pwan. 101 hran-war^o.

hpah I = pa, brave, hero, q.v. See also pahi. 36 -hron-hkes; 185 ma° (1); 205 -rmag; 259 -hrgam; 305, 306 hbrad-re°; 374 -hwe; 377 -hldan-hro; 388 hrtah° (pp. 231, 239, 254, 262, 269, 280, 300).

 See meḥi^o, ḥmeḥi^o. 272 hmeḥi^o.

hpahi, hpahhi. See hpehi. 211 mye^o; 384 ldyo-roho^o (pp. 282, 327, 331).

hpar = hphar, q.v. 289 hgam^o (p. 293). hpu I = man, male. See also hpur, hphu I, hbu II (pp. 216-17, 308). 29 htoro ohgru; 64 toro; 65 hño[-]r[e]-htsaho; 150 hldyaño(?); 157 -hbron; 161, 218, 343 hldyaño; 140 -hpos; 266 -hbos; 289, 322 hgaro; 381 -hloho (? see pu-glo) (pp. 138, 157, 187, 216-17, 219, 260, 297, 305, 308, 359).

II = bird. 160 -myi-hldin (pp. 145-6, 172, 217).

III, for hbu = Tib. bu, son, child. 183 -ge; 184 ma^o (p. 301).

IV. 83 htsoo ohkam.

hpud = Tib. phud, hphud, hbud, blow out, drive out? phud, an instant. 28 -hto. See critical note.

hpun? cf. Tib. sbun-gter, hollow, vain? 210 hmo-ta^o (p. 245).

hpuhi = Tib. hphu, hbud, &c., blow (pp. 284-5). See also hphu II, hphuhi. 274 hldyimste^o; 282 -hpuhi (p. 331).

hpur, for hpu I, q.v., +re (pp. 173-5). 163 hbri-h

éche

(pp. 216-17).

hpul, ef. Tib. phul, handful; phultu, at a climax; phul-byun, perfected. See also hphul. 15, 51 hśań-ma^o (p. 267).

hpus. 298 -hphya (p. 359).

hpeg = hphyegs, q.v. 360 swah⁰. hpehi, apparently = Tib. dpe,

sample (exemplar), and confused with spa, ornament (pp. 282, 349). 211 myi^o; 353 hdzo^o; 384, 386, 387 hro^o (pp. 274, 331). See also spehi, hrpehi, spa, spe, spehi.

hpo I = po, male, man, q.v. See also hpho. 115 -hldi; 177 -hldo, a Suffix, pp. 186-7; 358 -hldah, a Suffix, p. 183; 361 -hñe; 393 -hdam (?) (pp. 217, 229, 274, 316, 335).

II = Tib. spo, hpho, change, alter, migrate. 46 hgoo; 48 hsio; 122 htsog-hramo (pp. 226, 251, 286, 292).

III, perhaps = Tib. pho, belly, in

317 hpo-hrbom: cf. po-rbom (hrbom), hbo-bon (hbon), hbom-rbo (pp. 224, 323).

IV. See hpoho.

hpog = Tib. hphog, hit (with a missile). See also hphog. 59 hdaho (p. 343).

hpon I = Tib. phon, phons, hphons, poor, needy, drc. 113 hnaho (pp. 233, 238, 297).

II, for Tib. dpon, master, chief, in 321 stono? (p. 362).

hpod. perhaps = tremble. 14 spo^o (p. 265).

hpom = Tib. pham, hpham, be defeated. See also hphom (p. 367). 347 hrnehe-hno-geo (p. 219).

hpoho. 28 -hwar-hwar (p. 341).
hpor = por I, release, q.v. Tib.
hbor, cast, abandan. See also
phor II, hphor. 68 hbu°; 175
hnu-glañ° (pp. 250, 268, 319).

hpos = hbos, grown, big, q.v. 141 hpu^o (pp. 231, 297).

hpyah = Tib. dpya, hphya, rebuke; dpya, tax (= phya, hphya?). 328 hkah^a (pp. 315, 317).

hpyi, perhaps = Tib. dbyi, g-yi, lynx. 333 hrkom^o (p. 305).

hpyid = Tib. phyid, hphyid, suffice or wipe away. See also hphyid. 339 stor-hdehio; 344 ldan-[hdehi]o (pp. 253, 256).

hpyed = Tib. hbyed, hbye, phye, dbye, be separated, divided, opened. See also hphyed, hbye. 208 htshar-hdeo (p. 234).

hpra = Tib. pra, phra, prognostic? Cf. phra, minute? See also pra and hphrah. 267 -hre.

hpran = Tib. hphran, narrow, ledge; spran, beggar, 368 hrnoo (p. 239).

hprah = Tib. hphra, kick, or phra, small? See also pra, hphrah. 254 hyogo (?); 331 hrkom--hbrono; 332 hkluo; 333 hrkom--hpyio; 335 htheo (p. 305).

hpro = Tib. hphro, spro, expand, progress, rejoice. 181-hro; 245, 246-hbo-hbon (p. 156). hprom = prom, Auxiliary Verb, q.v. 128, 169, 209, 321, 322, 341, 359, 360.

hproms, Aorist of hprom, prom, q.v. 122 htaso (pp. 281, 292).

hplan = plan, street, q.v. 356

-hdrah (p. 241).

rpag, low or made low. See hpag and also hrpag. Perhaps sometimes 'deep' or 'depth' (Tib. dpag) (pp. 225-6). 135 hkhar^c; 192 hkar^c; 193 hňah-htsu^c; 194 gso-nad^c; 208 hkaň-heig^c; 210 hean-rgye^c; 240 rňe-hlad^c; 245 gse-lad^c; 252 baň^c (pp. 183, 196, 234, 238, 243, 245, 274, 305).

rpu. See p. 350, 91 htsogo.

rpehi = Tib. dpe, sample. See hpehi, hrpehi. 286 -hldah, a Suffix, p. 183 (p. 323).

hrpag = rpag, q.v. 17 hkhah^o; 128 hkhar^o; 193 hnah-mo^o; 223 hbron^o; 231 hwa-bżer^o; 253 hban-hidon^o (pp. 225-7, 242-3, 263, 305, 339, 340).

-- hkhur, down-bowed. 6 (p. 226). hrpehi = rpehi, q.v. 169 -hrgam

(pp. 244, 323).

hrpod = Tib. spod, vow, or phod, cope with, or hbod, bos, challenge, fight? 250 -hbos (p. 349).

lpyoho = Tib. hphyo, be agitated, waver? (p. 354). 22 hmar-myio.

spa = Tib. spa, ornament. See also spehi, hpehi. 151 mehio (pp. 282, 356).

spu-rbu = Tib. spu-gu, some small bird, or spur, hphur, fly (p. 350).

39 rgono.

spe fundamentally = spa, hpehi, spehi, hrpehi, ornament, exemplar, q.v. See also spehi (p. 356). 86 na°.

spehi = spe, q.v. (pp. 282, 356). 140 hñi-stor^o; 200 -hdzan; 379

-ge (p. 323).

spo 1 = Tib. spo, height, summit. 14 -hpod-pod; 381 -ro (?) (p. 265).

II = Tib. spo, hpho, change, migrate, pass away. See also hpo II (p. 356). 126 hldańkrań°; 381 -ro (?) (pp. 288-9).

spyi = Tib. spyi, general, top, chief. 110 -hdze (p. 335).

spye, summer = Tib. dbyar Mo-so jë? (p. 353). 159 -chos; 148 -htor; 190 hse^o (pp. 145-6, 240, 285-6, 302).

Ph

phan = hpan II, lap, &c., q.v. 111 hbom-rboo (p. 230).

phu, conceivably = hpu IV, q.v. 130
-hkam.

phor I = pho+re. Cf. por II. 295 htsao.

II = por I, hpor, q.v. See also hphor. 359 nu-glano (p. 250). phya = hphyah? 204 pyuo.

phyan = pyan, suspended, dc., q.v. 348 hthar^o; 374 htar^o (pp. 248,

phyi = pyi, outside, subsequent, q.v. 79 hldano; 89, 96, 98 -hse (pp. 288, 321).

phyir, for phyir-re? = Tib. phyir, outside, back, or phyi-re? = Tib. hphyi, eradicate? 249 hrahyano.

phye = Tib. hbyed, phye, &c., divided, opened. See also hpyed, hphyed. 120 htsog-hram^o; 145 -hgo (pp. 291-2, 299-300).

phyer = pyar, phyar, lift, hoist, q.v. 254 ldano; 261 -chan; 340 -ma-swan; 342 -htso-htsehi (pp. 239, 283, 287, 353).

phrom = prom, Auxiliary Verb, q.v. See also hphrom. 172 hkohu^o (p. 254).

phlan = plan, hplan, street, q.v. 357

gphaḥ, father = Tib. pha. See also ḥpha, ḥphaḥ. 60 -tsa (p. 145).

bphyag, Aorist of hphyag, q.v. 101 hkoho-hko^o (pp. 196, 264).

hpha = Tib. pha, father. See also gphah, hphah. 60 -nur-nur; 65 -ma; 184 -ge (pp. 145, 172, 318). hphag I = Tib. phag, pig. 69 -la-

gnah (pp. 193, 247).

II ? cf. Tib. hphags, elevated, or phag, hidden part, interstice, or phag-rags, rampart? so-phag, brick-work. 238-hbah-ge.

hphage. See hpha-ge. 184.

hphaň = hpaň II and III, q.v. See also phaň. 302 hrihi^o (pp. 178, 263).

hphan = Tib. phan, benefit. 215 htshu-too.

hphah I = hpha, father, q.v. 38 rbyo^o; 73 -ma; 199 -rman (pp. 274, 320).

II = pa, hpā, hpah I, brave, q.v.? 151 -hphog; 304 hyah-hdado; 314 hkhog-reo (p. 280).

III? 275 hldanh(?)-gsomo; 364

htomo.

 -- hphah, laugh. 348 hgweghwebe^o (pp. 248, 343).

hphahha, miswriting (of hphah?), 275.

hphar = Tib. phar, beyond; hphar, be elevated (go away). See also hpar. 93, 99, 110, 118 hgamo; 142 mor-gdago; 157 na-rogo; 187 hrta-hpāe; 388 hrtah-hpaho (pp. 239, 243, 336).

ḥphu I = ḥpu I, man, male, q.v. 62 htor^o; 48 -ḥśeg (?) (pp. 308,

330).

II = Tib. phu, phus, hbud, dbu, blow (the fire, dcc.). See also hpuḥi, pu (hphuḥ)-glo, hldim-hphu. 104 skuº; 301 hldimº; 352 -hphu (pp. 157, 270, 285, 321).

— (I?) -hbos = hpu (I), -hbos (hpos), q.v. 40, 167.

— (II) -hklo, bellows = pu-glo, q.v. 40 (pp. 239, 284).

hphuhi = hphu II+hi. 190 -hton; 276 hdzamo (pp. 228, 285).

hphul = hpul, handful, at a climax, q.v. 41 hhud-nohu^o.

hphe = Tib. hphen, throw away, or phe, weak? 317 hwa-ne^o (pp. 338-9).

hpho = po, hpo I, male, q.v. 117
-hldir-htsag (p. 217).

hphog = hpog (Tib. hphog), hit with a missile, q.v. (p. 343). 151 hphah^o.

hphom = hpom (Tib. pham, hpham), be defeated, q.v. 147 -te-hdrań (pp. 299-300).

hphor = phor II, por I, hpor I, release, &c., q.v. 168 chi-hrmuo; 183, 353 hdroo (pp. 276, 319, 332).

hphyag = Tib. phyag, hand; phyag-byed, salute, dec. See also bphyag, 106 -hkhohu.

hphyar = pyar, pyer, phyer, lift, hoist, q.v. 126 hldañ^o; 341 -ma--hswañ (pp. 287, 344).

hphyid = hpyid, suffice, wipe away, q.v. 340 hstor-hdehio (p. 253).

hphyu = pyu? 208 -hldyań.
hphyegs = hpeg, q.v. 176 swa°.

hphyed = hpyed, be separated, opened, &c., q.v. See also phye. 208 rsehi-rgodo.

hphyo, cf. lpyoho? 375 -hli.

hphrah = hprah (Tib = kick?). 255 hdran-reo.

hphrom. Auxiliary Verb = prom, hprom, hproms, bprom, phrom, q.v. 171 hkohu°.

В

bañ = Tib. hbañs, a subject or servant? See also hbañ I. 249 -hrehe; 252 -rpag (pp. 274).

bah = Tib. ba, cow? 47 hbehio (p. 286).

beg, only in the Proper Name Ses (Hses)-beg (hbeg), possibly related to the rbeg, rbag, rba-ga of Tsen-hgi-rbag, &c., p. 134. See also hbeg. 24 Seso; 5 Hseso (pp. 138, 224, 306-7).

bon = hbon, in hbo-hbon, q.v. 238

hboo (p. 230).

bos I = hbos, grown, big, q.v. See also hbo I, hbom, rbo, rbom, hrbo, hrbom. 42, 43 -smyi; 378 -[smyi-hldog?] (pp. 322-3, 334).

byi small = 'Nam-pa' pyi (p. 132) Hsi-hsia hbih, &c. See also hbyi (pp. 252, 265). 98 hmo--chao: 147 hmano (p. 300).

byin = hbyin, sink, dc., q.v. 97 hbomo, hmo-hchaho (pp. 342, 345).

byin = Tib. sbyin, gift, charity; byin, a blessing, a good. See also hbyin.

— -ta (tah, a Suffix, pp. 182–3). 105–6 (p. 315).

byu-re, for byur-re, Tib. byur, ill luck, wretched, dc. 108 mo--lano (p. 221).

brah = Tib. bra, plenty; hbras, rice; hbras-bu, fruit: also Proper Name (Dbra) of an ancient, legendary, tribe. See also hbra, hbrah, hbrahr. 228 -hrah (pp. 215-16, 319-20).

bri I = Tib. hbri, bri, dhri, diminish, grow less; phri, hphri, dpri, diminish, reduce. See also hbri I (pp. 215-16). 156 rmano; 202 rmano.

II., female, cf. Tib. hbri, yak-cow. See also hbri II. 329 -gše (pp. 216-17).

brehe = Tib. bred, be alarmed, dejected, ashamed. See also hbres, 44 ses-hsio (p. 322).

bro = Tib. hbros, flee, escape. See also hbro I. 108 hnoo (p. 221).

brom = Tib. hgrum, pinch or nip off; grum-po, cripple? (p. 366), 72 gsio ohnu (p. 342). See also hbrom.

bla = Tib. bla, upper, highest, superior, 154 -hldoh, a Suffix, pp. 186-7 (p. 222).

gbohu, from hbo I (Tib. hbo, &c., overflow, swell, grow), q.v. 181 hlab-ta^o (pp. 156, 231, 313).

gblan, from blan = Tib. len, blan, get, receive (possibly confused with glan I, q.v., from the same root). 265 h
non-ta^o (p. 219).

bbyam, Aorist of hbyam (= Tib. hbyam, flow over, spread; byams, kindness), q.v. 253 me^o (p. 274).

hba = Tib. dbah, rba, billows; dbah-rlabs-can-ma, hill torrent. See also hbah I. 54 ržano (p. 352).

hbań I = bań, subject, servant, q.v. 67, 251 -re, -hre, -hrehe; 67, 371. 373, 386, 390 -hko-htar, q.v.; 253 -hldoń; 363 -kwa-kwa (?) (pp. 268, 274, 331, 346 n.).

II = Tib. dban, power, authority.
39 hgyaid (?) -ge°; 170 -hldah,
a Suffix, p. 183; 172 -prom; 252
g-ri° (?); 354 hldun° (?) (pp-257, 275, 316, 321, 345, 346).

 (II) -thwañ = Tib. dbañ-thañ, might, fortune, destiny. 97
 -byiñ (pp. 342, 347).

hbab = Tib, bab, hbab, dbab, fall, descend, alight; hbab-chu, river, torrent. 15 hmar^o; 357 sko^o (p. 267).

hbah I = hba, billows, &c., q.v. (also 'rocking' in 45): derived from II? 45 hldago; 51 hmaro; 55 -hrag-hkyer (p. 317).

II = Tib. hbah, seizure, distraint (perhaps originally pressure, cf. hbah-cha, less, sediment). 110 hro-hbehio; 234 htsag-hro-hbehio; 235 hbeo (pp. 293-4).

III ? 239 hphago; 270 -hbom-rbo (p. 230).

hbar I = Tib. bar, dbar, interval, between. 97, 98 (pp. 262, 342, 345).

II for hbah (II)+re, 18 hyogshldog^o; 234 htsag-hro-hbehi^o (pp. 250, 339).

hbu I = Tib. dbu, head. 47 -hrug; 68 -hpor (pp. 250, 268, 286, 319).

II = hpu I, hphu I, man, q.v. 33 htoro ohgru (p. 308).

III = Tib. phu, high part of valley. 15 -rwye; 50 -rbye (p. 267).

hbe, sheep (p. 249). See also hbehi, hbehe. 235-hbah; 390-hbah? (pp. 293-4).

hbeg = beg, q.v. 7, 8, 20, 23, 25 hseso, seso (pp. 138, 224, 306-7).

hbehi = hbe, hbehe, q.v. 47 -bah; 69 -la-hgar; 110 -hbah; 213 -tyan; 234 -hbah and -hbar (pp. 193, 247, 249, 250, 253, 286, 293). hbehe = hbe, hbehi, q.v. 46 -hslirman (p. 257).

hbo I = Tib. bo, dbo, hbo, hbos, expand as a bubble, spill over, swell up, rise, grow; sbo, swell, distend; sbo, upper part of belly; pho, stomach; sbom, bulk (pp. 230-2). See also gbohu, rbo, hrbo, hbon, hbom, hbos, rbom, hrbom. 126 stor-hgno; 163 srio (1); 263 g-rah-nago (pp. 231, 283, 288-9, 313).

II forest, wood, a specialization of I. 12 -hkom; 280 -hram; 344 -hron (pp. 231, 318).

III? = II? 144 -kyer.

 -- bon (hbon), big, reduplicated form of I. See also po(hpo)rbom, hbom-rbo, 238, 243, 245, 246 (p. 230).

hbog = Tib. hbag, hbags, dbag, sbag, sbogs, defile, be defiled, be submerged. 256 hrag-ma^o; 283 rag-hdah-ta^o oni (pp. 147, 173). See also hwag.

hbod = Tib. hbad, watch, be alert, take care; hbod, call out, endeavour. See also hwad. 313 hmor-hso^o (p. 340).

hbon. See hbo-hbon.

hbom, big, bigness. See hbo, hbobon: also rbom, hrbom. 73 smyio; 97 -byin (pp. 236, 345).

— -rbo = hbo-hbon, q.v., grow big. 111 (2), 112, 270 (pp. 230).

hbos, etymologically Aorist of hbo I, swell up, grow: usually signifying big man, with or without the term hpu, hphu, dec., man (p. 231). See also bos, hpos. 41 hphu°; 164 -hsah-hldah and -hnom-hsah; 167 hphu°; 213 -hdom; 250 hrpod°; 266 hpu°; 287 -g-yah-hthan; 290 -g-ri; 291 -hrihi; 293 -hrihi, hpuhu°; 330 hpuhu° (pp. 260, 277, 278, 297, 298).

hbyam = Tib. hbyam, byams, flow over, be widespread (abound); byams, kind. 225, 231, 237, 244 hlado; 253 hyah-meo, hlabmeo; 353 hwah-hraho (p. 274). hbyi, small, become small = Hsihsia dbih, hbhi, hbih (pp. 132, 252): perhaps = Tib. hbyi, dbyi, wipe out. See also rbyi, hbyihi. 50 hee-hra°; 75 dgu--htor°; 167 -hri; 305, 307, 308, 311 gdzu°/gzu° (pp. 252, 265, 273, 276, 337, 338).

hbyig = cow (pp. 249-50), 70 -la-

-gnah (pp. 193, 247).

hbyin = Tib. hbyin, sink, grow faint; byins, depth, &c. See also byin. 56 hce-hraho; 57 me-nao; 96 na-geo (p. 345).

hbyin = byin, blessing, &c., q.v. 57 rgyań-hee^o (p. 312).

hbyim ? connected with sbyim, q.v. 266 -ge-g-yah; 363 hmu-lomge^o.

hbyihi = hbyi, q.v. 84 cis-tsha^o (p. 359).

hbye, perhaps connected with hpyed, hphyed, q.v. 131 rneo; 223 hton-hkono.

hbyohu = Tib. byo, hbyo, pour out? 256 ldyohu-ma^o (pp. 327, 331).

hbra = brah, q.v. See also hbrah, hbrahr.

 -hlda(r), probably name of a place, real or mythical, 31, 32 (p. 319).

hbrad = Tib. hbrab, match (pp. 253-4). 213 hstsah^o; 305 -re; 306 -re, -sta, a Suffix, pp. 182-3, 359; 312 hjuhu^o (pp. 231, 253-4).

hbrah = hbra, brah, be plentiful, dec., q.v. 269 hwah-ne^o (p. 339). See also hbrahr.

-- - hlda(r) = hbrao, q.v. 30 (pp. 319-20).

hbraḥr for hbraḥ-re (p. 123). 254 hldan-phyero (p. 287).

hbri I = bri I, diminish, grow less (destroy?), loss? q.v. 132 -hldi--hthan; 203 -hko; 228 -hgu, a Suffix, pp. 190, 258 (pp. 171, 215-16, 246, 253).

II = bri II, female, q.v. 137 -re; 150, 161, 218, 343 hpu^o (? I); 163 -héehe; 324 -hdzohu-kyim; 381 -slod-hldo (pp. 138, 216-18, 275, 338).

hbrus = Tib. hbru, brus, probe, irritate, inflame. 153 ske^o (p. 316).

hbres. Aorist of brehe, be alarmed, &c. q.v. 176 kehu-promo.

hbro I = bro, flee, dc., q.v. 36 hldyo-hrjeo; 138 hdzehu-rjeo; 139 ldań-rdzeo; 241 hcah-hyańo; 355 hthaho (pp. 218, 228, 230, 244, 287, 335).

II = Tib. bro, taste, have a taste, be felt as. See also hbroho. 221, 222, 297, 313, 316, 318, 323, 325 hkru^o, hkruhu^o; 221 hklu^o = hkru^o (pp. 228-9, 296-7).

hbron = Tib. hbron, wild yak (pp. 139, 258-9). See also hldag-nag. 68, 371, 373, 384, 386, 389 hdzamo; 157 hpuo; 170 hdroo oprom; 182 -hldah; 215, 216, 217, 219, 220, 222, 392, 394 (?) htoro/toro/thoro; 220 -hdru-hjar; 221, 393 -hkru--hbro; 250 -re-ge; 285, 331 hrkomo; 353 -hldar-hdzam (pp. 244, 250, 258, 263, 268, 272, 285, 294, 296, 305, 313, 319, 331).

hbrom = brom, pinch, or nip, off.

q.v. 297 rñeheo.

hbroho = hbro II, taste = be felt as, q.v. 294 hkruhu^o (pp. 246-7).

rbab (lect.?), for rnab = hrnab, q.e. ? 54 -na-hke.

rbu. See spuo. 39 (p. 350).

rbo = Tib. sbo, swell up, &c. See hbo I, hrbo, hbom, rbom, hrbom. 27 g-yo^o; 136 kyer^o; 111, 112, 270 hbom^o (pp. 230-1, 309).

rbom, big, bigness, become big, &c. See hbom, hrbom. 317 hpoo-See also hpo III (pp. 224, 323,

338-9).

rbyi, perhaps = diminish: ef. byi, hbyi, small, q.v. 375 -hldyihi (pp. 330, 350).

rbye, extent = Tib. dbye, from hbyed, See also hpyed, hphyed, hbye, rwye. 53 -hee-rgyan (pp. 290-2, 345).

rbyo I = fowl (pp. 332-3). 38 -hphah; 365 -rgyer; 366 -g-yer

(pp. 320, 332).

 II = rbyo-po, a priest, sorcerer or bon-po man, perhaps literally a fowl-man? (pp. 155-6, 332-3).
 See also hrbyo I. 53 -hko-rho; 82 -ha-ge; 102 -sñañ; 181 -po (pp. 263, 320, 332-3).

III, miswriting of rgyo, q.v. 330

-gseg (p. 178).

hrbo = rbo, swell up, &c., q.v. 25 Ses-hbego.

hrbom = rbom, bigness, become big, &c., q.v. 317 hpoo (p. 323).

hrbyo I = rbyo II, q.v. 56 -hkorho (p. 263).

II, miswriting of hbro, q.v.? (Cf. 355) 362 -htoho, a Suffix, pp. 184-6.

sbyim, target, cf. Tib. hgyim? 59 -hee-rgye (p. 343).

M

-ma, a Nominal Suffix (pp. 181-2), seen in rgyed-ma 101, 105, 107, 231, hgru-ma 27, 32, 77, 79, hdaḥ-ma (?) 108.

ma = Tib. dc., ma, not (p. 205). 31, 32; 57, 63, 71, 94 (final after Verb htan); 96 (between Verb htan and Suffix to); 103, dc.

ma, mah. See mahn.

ma, mother. 65 hpha^o; 184 -hpu; 185 -hpah (?) (pp. 301, 318).

mag = Tib. dmag, army. See also rmag, hrmag. 102 hsado (p. 301).

 -hno, battle, cf. Tib. g-yul-no, battlefront. 48, 49, 58, 145, 184 (pp. 194, 299–301, 320).

mahn for man in reduplicated maman. See also hman. 238 mah-mahn; 243, 246 ma-mahn; 245 ma-ma-hna; 247 ma-hman (p. 230).

mu, cold, afraid (?). See also hmu, hmuhi. 116 -rgyeb; 184 -re; 175 -hldi (!); 197 -hrog-htro; 244 dguhuo (pp. 232-3, 285, 301, 318).

mug = Tib. mug, gloom; rmugs, fog, stupid, &c. 227 -bgu, a Suffix, pp. 190, 258 (pp. 215-16).

mur, written for mu, q.v., +re. 252 hphu-hphuo (pp. 157, 285).

me, fire (literal and metaphorical) = Tib. me. See also mye I, hmye, sme, mehe, hmehi II (pp. 281-6), 8, 20 -hgrah; 40 hnaho; 45 reo, lect. ma for me?; 53 -hyed; 56 -na; 58 -na; 67 hjoo, hlabo; 70 bjoo-, hlabo; 71 bdeo; 89 htshogo; 114 -hmehi; 123 storo; 124 hldano; 149-htan; 170 hkehuo, hkohio; 173 hkohuo; 253 hyaho, joo, hlabo (pp. 172, 173, 194, 201, 232, 239, 244, 257, 268, 272, 273, 274, 275, 282, 284, 285, 286, 288, 300-1, 316, 320, 321, 337, 345).

mehi I, eye = Tib. mig, dc. See also hmehi I, mye III. 25 Hśes-hbego: 78 -ra: 151 -spa: 155 -hgab; 185 śudo; 186, 369 -hrah; 370 -spehi-hrah; 35 -gri-htah (?) (pp. 138, 139, 186-7, 223, 244, 265, 282, 318, 331).

II = ma, not, +hi at end of sentence, 'is not'. 115 so-hnaho; 156 g-yah-tao; 311 hman-stao, hri-staho; 312 g-rihi-stao, hristaho; 313 g-ri-stao (pp. 200, 201, 254, 282, 337).

- (I) -klu-hcha/hcah, a Proper Name. 150, 161, 343 hklu. See also hmehio (pp. 138, 253, 255).

mehe = me. 171 hkohuo.

mo I = Tib. mo, feminine, woman. See also hmo I (p. 182). 108 -lan; 188 hnan(hna)-hdroo; 193 hňaho (pp. 221, 238, 285). See also hmo II.

 $\Pi = sky$, or mo-ge for mog (q.v.)+ge? 252 sta-reo (p. 201).

III? = hair? 63, 144 -ma-hthor (p. 303). See also hmo III.

mog (? lect.) = gmog, hmog, cloud? 6 -htswe (pp. 269, 271).

Mon, Proper name of a people, the Mons. See also Hmon (pp.

150-4). 379, 380, 381 hrtsigo, rtsigo, tsigo (p. 285).

-hdzon/hjon, Mon fort. See also Hmono, 64 hstoro; 118 storo; 128 storo; 139 storo; 140 storo (pp. 171, 187, 243, 305, 308).

mod = Tib, mod, be verily (p. 200). 211 hgo-gtono; 212 hko-htono (pp. 200, 260, 261, 332).

 $modhi = mod (q, v_*) + hi$, 212.

mor, bad, evil (pp. 215-16). See also hmor I. 9 -htan; 40 -hphu--hbos; 87 -hldan; 141 -gdag--hgom; 142 -gdag-hphar; 173 swaho; 225 -hgu, a Suffix, pp. 190, 258; 286 -hkyan; 388 -tsah, a Suffix, pp. 187-8 (pp. 187, 239, 276, 297, 304, 323, 329, 340).

myag = Tib. myag, chew; myags, putrid (spoiled, vile). 39 -mye--htan; 109 -gre; 148 -myi[-tor], myage-me-htan: 179 gnah--goño; 280 -ma-htsar; 367 gnah--hgono: 368 hyahn-gono (pp. 221, 231, 269, 291-2, 302).

myi I = Tib. mi, man (pp. 236-7). 148 -tor; 153 -re, -bsi, -rgye; 211 -hpehi (pp. 174, 236, 273).

II = Tib. mi, not. See also hmyi, mye II. 98 phyi-hseo; 159 -seg; 160 -hrgan, -hldin; 165 -hrdoho (pp. 145-6, 172, 200, 217, 296, 345).

 $mvi\hat{n} = Tib.$ min, name (mere name). 97 htsog-hramo (p. 345).

myil = Tib. myul/ñul, rove as a spy (pp. 354, 367). See also hmyil. 29 rgu-hmyilo (p. 259).

mye I = me, fire, q.v. See also 6 -hyan-hwad; 39 hmye. 195 102 hsi-kyego; -htan; htharo; 211 -hpahi; 357 tharo (pp. 241, 269, 271, 301, 340).

 $\Pi = Tib.$ med, is not. See also myer. 154 -dze: 241 -re (p. 237).

III for mehi I, eye, q.v. 212

-hpehi (p. 240).

myen = Chinese (man), wan 247 hlad-htono myriad. (p. 234).

myer, written for mye II, is not, (q.v.), +re (pp. 174, 281), 129 -re; 153 myi-rgyeo; 365 rgon--wao, htsog-hramo; 366 hkehu--promo (pp. 273, 293, 332, 342).

gmog, cloud, cf. Tib. rmugs, fog. stupid; mug, gloom; mog, dark Tangut: rmükha, colours: 55 -hee-rgyan, -heecloud. hsa (pp. 263, 271, 353). See

also mog, hmog.

hman, larger, many = Tib. man, man (pp. 230-1). 33 (?)-hldah, a Suffix, p. 183; 146 -byi; 301 hldim-hphuo; 302 -hrihi; 303 -hkhu; 304 -hldyo, -rgam; 305 -nan-hyu; 306 -ge-hrgam; 307 hnah-nao, -hrgam; 308 -hri, -g-ri; 309 -g-rihi; 310 hldimo; 311 -sto (pp. 200, 229, 231, 239, 254, 256, 266, 270, 300, 309, 321, 327, 337, 345).

hmad = Tib. smad, low, lower, reprove. See also rmad (pp. 226-7). 36, 39 seso; 202 hraho

(pp. 269, 313).

hman in reduplicated form mahman, from man, many. 247.

See mahn.

hmah = Tib. ma, dmah, low, antithetic to ya. See also rmah, hgru (II) -hldan-hmah (pp. 226-7). 112 -hldan-hyah (pp. 227, 288).

hmar I = Tib. mar, down, low. 15 hbab (cf. Tib. chu-hbab, hill torrent); 22 -myi-lpyoho; 51

-hbah (p. 267).

II = Tib. mar, butter, oil. 46 -me, lamp = Tib. mar-me (p. 286).

hmu I = mu, cold, q.v. See also hmuḥi (pp. 232-3). 39 hkye--geo; 104 hdramo; 200 hceo; 204 bcheo; 206 bceo; 225, 236, 245 dguo/dguhuo.ohto/to: 268 -klag; 309 -wa-rno; 363 -lom(?) (pp. 200, 232-3, 266, 270, 285, 298, 320, 338).

II, sky. cf. Tib. mu, limit, boundary, horizon. 9 -hrnu-skhrud

(p. 276).

hmun = Tib.mun. darkness? (p. 276). 33 hse-hteo.

 $hmuhi = hmu I, q.v. 183 me^{\circ},$ make cold (pp. 172, 232).

hme I = me, fire, q.v. See also hmehi II. 262 can-smeo (p. 283).

II mehi II, is not. 121 htsog--hramo (pp. 281, 292).

hmehl I = mehi I, eye, q.v. 185 śudo; 186 hjam-geo; 272 -hpah (p. 139).

II = hme I, fire, q.v. 114 meo. light fire (pp. 172, 201, 232, 282).

— (I) -klu-ḥcaḥ = meḥio, q.v. 218 (pp. 138, 255).

hmo I = mo, woman, q.v. 84 -rkah--kda; 97 -hchah; 98 -cha; 189 hnan-hdroo (pp. 227, 285, 343, 345).

II = mo II, sky, q.v. (?). 8, 20 -ge-me-hgrah; 9 -no-ge (? read mon-ge?); 19 -ge (pp. 142, 201, 332).

III = mo III, hair? 71 -ma-thor (p. 303).

IV ? 210 -ta-hpun (p. 245). V ? 175 mu-hldio; 360.

hmog = gmog, cloud, q.v. 52 -heergyan; 54 stehi-htamo; 81 -re--hldon (pp. 271, 353).

hmoge, written for hmog-ge or hmo-ge. 55 -hco.

Hmon I = Mon, q.v. 78 -jon; 129 -hjon (pp. 241, 263). II. See re-hmon. 134.

III. (hman?)-hldah 33.

hmor I = mor, bad, evil, q.v. 313 -hso; 318 hswaho; 331 hguo (p. 296).

IL written for hmo (I) +re. 190 -bzah-re (p. 240).

hmyi = myi II, not, q.v. 40 hnahmeo; 254 hldyo-htoro (pp. 239, 284, 328 n.).

hmyil = myil, q.v. 29 -myil.

hmye = mye I, fire, q.v. 197 -htah, a Suffix, pp. 122-3.

rma I = Tib. rmas, ask. 47 damo (p. 286).

II = Tib. rma, wound, 156 -gvog-rno (p. 295).

III, river = Hsi-hsia masuo, Tib.

rma-chu. 196 -hsu-hdra (pp. 245-6).

rmag = Tib. dmag, army. See also mag, hrmag. 146 hrah-htono; 147 hŝod-teo; 149 rgyedo; 205 hpaho (pp. 144, 246, 300, 361).

rmań I = tomb-monument, Tib. rmań (p. 148). 27 hldań°; 148 -ra-gyim; 156 -bri-hko; 197 -hldab; 199 -na, hphah°; 201 -na, hwi-wa°; 202 -bri-ko; 206 gsań°, -na; 207 -na; 235 -dze; 336 -bwi-hkho (pp. 246, 259, 318, 320, 341, 345).

II = Tib. rman, dream, rmon, rmons, delusion, dc. 46 hslio; 77 hgru-mao (pp. 278, 309).

rmad = Tib. smad, low. See also hmah, rmah, hmad (pp. 226– 7). 80, 84 smyi^o (pp. 237, 288, 343).

rmah = hmah, rmad, q.v., low. 257 hyah^o (p. 227).

rmar I, written for rmah-re. 315, 318 hyah-htano (pp. 227, 296).

II, written for rma (Tib. rma, wound, to wound) +re. 312 hdom-hguhu°, hjuhu-hbrad° (p. 254).

rmur, written for rmu (= Tib. mu, boundary) + re (pp. 351-2). See also hmu II, hrmu. 166 hsahchado (p. 276).

rme = Tib. dme/rme/sme, blemish (p. 349). 124, 232, 337, 340, 342 htor/tor-hrta/hrtaho (p. 284).

rmo = Tib. smon, wish, aspire, pray? See also rmon? 250 -hkum (p. 294).

rmon = rmo? or connected with rman II, dream? 349 hjimhtson-geo.

rmyi (? lect.) = smyi, man, q.v.? 41 hyano.

hrmag = rmag, army, q.v. 146 rñe-ne^o (pp. 222, 299-300).

hrmu = rmu, boundary, q.v. 168 chi^o (p. 276).

hrmoho. 18 hskyim-seo.

smu-hdzu, conceivably = Tib. mu-zi, brimstone, with -i/-u as in p. 367. 27 -rgyag (p. 259). smuḥu-ḥku = Tib. smyig-ma, smyug-ma, smyu-gu, reed (p. 357). 22 -hyob.

sme, fire, blaze, me, mye I, hme I, hmehi II, hmye, q.v. (pp. 282-3, 357). 192 rgyed-hrano; 262 cano; 282, 284, 375 hsego; 342 klu-hldoo—error for rme? 393 hrgyed-hsano (pp. 282-3).

smyi = Tib. mi, myi, man (pp. 236-7). See also myi, rmyi, 37 -rmad; 42, 44 -hldog; 73 -hbom; 80 -hni; 84 -rmad; 241, 242 -hnu; 269 -glog (pp. 227, 237, 288, 322, 323, 334, 339, 343).

Ts

tsa, a Pluralizing or classifying Suffix, often in the combination re-tsa, signifying those who (uhose, dc.) (pp. 187-8). See also tsah, htsa I, htsah I, tsha, tshah. 60 hkhu°, gphah°; 63 hyan°; 163 hno-re°; 220 hthanle°; 283 hpan°; 388 hyan° (pp. 145, 274, 304, 305, 315).

tsan = Tib. tshan, complete (p. 364). 136 gtse-hkom-re^o.

tsah = tsa, q.v. 388 moro (pp. 216, 304).

tsig = rtsig, hrtsig, carpenter, q.v. 381 -Mon.

tsu = Tib. tshu, tshur, hither, come hither. 284 -re (p. 364). See also gtsu, htsu I, htsuhu, tsur, htsur, htshu, htshun, htshur.

tsur = tsu, htsu, htsur, come, &c., q.v. 391 hgyah-hnaho,

tse, written for dze, q.v. 63 hjo^o; 111 hyah^o; 120 hnah^o (pp. 230, 262, 274, 291-2, 305)^o.

tseg = geeg, geheg, heeg, q.v. (p. 294). 93 swa^o etseg (p. 334).

tsweḥu. ? cf. htswe? (pp. 269, 368). 196 ḥwam-wehi-ge^o (p. 241).

gtsan = Tib. stsan, corn, grain. See also htsan. 159 -myi-hrgan; 165 hsaho (pp. 145-6, 335). gtsu. Prospective form of tsu, q.v. 214 hrwehi^o (p. 345).

gtse = Tib. gtse/htshe, cause mischief, injure (pp. 140-1). 113 -ne; 136 -hkom. See also gse, hse I, hsehi, hsehe II.

gtsob. Prospective form of htshab, q.v. = Tib. htshab, replace, be ruffled; tshab, deputy? 351 hdam-slego; 352 glyan-ruo.

htsa I = tsa q.v. 24 klu-hrto°; 67 hgro-re°; 64 hstor-Moń-hdzoń--re°; 131 hthań-le°; 146 htrog°; 152 g-yah°; 215 htor-hñi°; 259 hkhwi° (pp. 138, 186-7, 202, 223, 272, 305, 308, 343).

II. 249 -re.

htsä, probably intended for htsah III, q.v. 21 -gsom (p. 306).

htsag = Tib. tshogs, htshogs, bstsags, collect, assemble. See also htsog, tshog, htshog. 45 hyao; 117 hpho-hldiro; 173 hwi-hwehio; 234 -hro; 257 hyah-rmaho; 282 (?) (pp. 191, 127, 227, 257, 292, 341, 343).

htsan = gtsan, corn, grain, q.v. 270 -ra; 378 hsaho (?) (pp. 178,

339).

htsam = Tib. tsam, just so much. See also tsham. 72 hsoro

(pp. 204, 342).

ḥtsaḥ I = tsa, htsa I, q.v. 25 klu-rto^o; 31 hñed-htram^o; 65 hgag-re^o; 65 hño[-]r[e]^o; 74 rah-ge^o; 342 mye-hrah^o; 379 rtsig-Moń-ge^o; 381 we-ge^o; 383 hwehi-ge^o (pp. 138, 157, 186, 187, 219, 223, 228, 251, 274, 287, 319).

II = Tib. btsa, btsas, watch (p. 278), See also stsah, hstsah I 42 hsaho; 44 htsaho; 268 -hdzan; 291 -po[-]r[e] (pp. 280, 281, 322, 339).

III = Tib. btsah-ma, btsas-ma, btsas, rtsas, ripening of corn, harvest, probably identical with btsa, btsas, give birth to a child; btsas-ston, birth festivity (pp. 278, 281). 277 gsah-re-htsah-re. See also hstsah II.

IV. See hdzo(htso)-htsah/

htsehi/hdzehi. 30, 62, 73, 115 (p. 252).

htsah-sto, written for htsahs-to. Aorist form of htsah (III?). 33 nao; 233 hehiro (p. 275).

htsar = Tib. tshar, htshar, limit, parish. See also htshar. 280

myag-mao (p. 231).

htsu I = tsu, hither, come hither, q.v. See also htsuhu, htsur, htshu, htshur. 113 hgu-htoro; 304 hdom-hguo (p. 233).

II, man (pp. 218, 238). 193 hnaho

(p. 238).

htsuhu = htsu I, q.v. 166 hranhrah^o; 303 hdom-hgu^o (pp. 142, 200, 256, 327).

htsur = tsu, htsu I, q.v. 207 hkah--hgaño (p. 315).

htseh 364. See hdzo.

htsehi 342. See htsah IV.

htso I? 83 hldaso; 105 -dro-ho (p. 261).

written in place of htsog, q.v. 88.
 (II) -hna written for so/hso-hnah, q.v. 93.

— (III) -htsah, perhaps = Tib. cha-cho, matched. See also hdzo-htsah/hdza. 62,73 gla^o; 115 heah^o (p. 252).

— III -htsehi, apparently = -htsah+hi (pp. 191-2). 342

phyero.

htsog = Tib. htshogs, bstsags, &c. See htsag, tshog, htshog, htso, hcog II. 91 -rpu; 94, 96 -htañ-ma; 95 -hldañ; 99 hnaho; 102 ñaho (pp. 292, 320-1).

-- hram, friendship, harmony. 35, 37, 82, 86, 90, 94, 97, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 365 (pp. 262, 281, 288, 291-3, 345).

htson = Tib. tshon, htshon, stsons, trade, barter, sell. 349 hjimo.

htsors = Tib. gsor, bsor, hchor, hunt, chase; sor, hchor, flee. See also tshor, htshors. 134 hldag-nago; 219 hbrono (pp. 258-9).

htswe? = tswehu, q.v.? hdzwe? (pp. 269, 368). 6 mogo,? lect.?

(p. 269).

rtsig = Tib. rtsig, build, mason. See also hrtsig, tsig (p. 150). 379, 380 -Mon.

hrtsig = rtsig, q.v. 380 -Mon.

stsah = htsah II, watch, q.v. (p. 278). See also hstsah I. 298 hboso.

stsar = Tib. tshar, occasion, instance, used with numerals. 247

stono (pp. 233-4).

hstsah I = stsah, htsah II, hseah, watch, q.v. 250 -hyer; 288 -hyah-hthan; 290 -hrihi; 295 -hri; 298 -hldah, a Suffix, p. 183; 345, 350, 351 hyu° (pp. 246, 278, 280).

II? = htsah, III, harvest? 213

-hbrad (p. 253).

Tsh

tsha = tsa, Pluralizing Suffix, q.v. 50 hce-ra^o; 84 cis^o (?) (pp. 259, 359).

tsham = htsam, Tib. tsam, just so much, q.v. 50 -hrog (p. 361).

tshah = tsha, tsa, q.v. (p. 364). 219 hthan-leo (p. 272).

tshis, error for chim, q.v., or = Tib. mchis, come? See also htshis. 95 dimo (pp. 320, 359).

tshu = tsu, htsu, gtsu, come hither, dec., q.v.? See also htshu, htshun, htshur, 206 -gsom.

tshog = htsog, collect, assemble, q.v. See also htshog, 95-hldan (pp. 320-1).

tshor = htsor(s), hunt, chase. See also htshors. 220 hbrono.

htshab = Tib. htshab, tshab, replace, deputy. See gtsob. 104 hnago (p. 360).

htshar = Tib. tshar, limit, parish. See also htsar. 208 -hde (p. 234).

htshim = Tib. tshim, satisfaction; hchims, get full. See also chim, hchim. 81 hsi-hkrio (p. 298).

htshis = tshis, q.v. 88 hdim^o (p. 321).

htshu = thsu, tsu, htsu I. gtsu, q.v. 75 hsoh-hsoho: 76 dgu-htoro; 215 -to, a Suffix, pp. 184-6.

htshun = htshu, &c., q.v., also Tib. tshun, 76 dgu-htoro.

htshur = htsur, q.v. 391 hnahhdihio.

htshe = Tib. gtse, htshe, do harm. See also gtse. 74 hkuhu-nehuo (p. 250).

htshog = htsog, q.v.

-ḥram. 90 = ḥtsogo, friendship,dc. (p. 321).

htshors = htsors, tshor, hunt, de., q.v. 130 hldag-nago (p. 259).

Dz

dze I, a Clause-terminating Postposition, signifying place, time, or circumstance (pp. 193-4). 8, 10, 11, 15, 16, 17, 20 and passim.

II. For cig-dze see cig.

dzeń. 378. (Read dze-rne?).

dzwe = hdzwe, htswe, hdzwehe (p. 269)? 367 hśań-khyańo (p. 240).

gdzu, ass. See also gzu, hdzu I, hju, hzu (pp. 251-3). 194 steo; 305, 308, 311 -hbyi; 390 -hti (pp. 229, 241, 251, 337, 353).

hdza I = Tib. mdzah, friend, friendship. See also hdzah I. 362 -ma-hnyon; 363 -ma-hne; 376 -htrog (p. 220).

II. See hdzo-hdza(htsa, hdzehi).
hdzań I = Tib. mdzańs, hdzańs, wise (pp. 224-5). 18 -hkhor; 42 hsah-htsaho; 44 htsah-htsaho; 142 -hdog-stor; 200 spehio; 269 htsaho; 285 -hyah-bthań; 288, 318 hslio; 314, 315 hnoro (pp. 224, 262, 280, 295, 322, 323, 339).

II ? = Tib. bzań, fine, good (large). 232-4 -hglah/glah/gla.

HI ? 38 hldyań-hrdzań.

hdzam = Tib. hjam, gentle, pleas-

ant, mild. See also hjam (pp. 297, 339). 68, 371, 373, 386, 389 -hbron; 353 hbron--hldaro; 122 rkwao; 145 hnamo; 182 hbron-hldaho; 224 hrkwao; 264 gsan°; 264 hno°; 274 hkyan°, rn°°; 275 twan°; 276 hkyi°; 276 g-rah°°nag; 278 -nag (pp. 250, 261, 268, 285, 313, 314, 319, 331, 341, 343, 361).

-- - hdzim = Tib. zań-ziń, miscellaneous objects, confused (bustle)? (p. 192). 100 gdim^o

(p. 321).

hdzah I = hdza I, friend, dc., q.v. See also hrdza, hrdzah. 379 spehi-ge^o; 382, 383 -hldah, a Suffix, p. 183; 43 hrah-ldah--ge^o(?) (pp. 157, 313, 323, 334).

II = Tib. za, eat. See also hjah, gzo, hdzoho, hjo III (p. 334). 170 hkehu-me^o; 255 hśań^o; 43 (†) (pp. 316, 327, 331, 334).

hdzar = hjar, stick, stick together, q.v. (pp. 220, 248). See also rdzar. 69, 374 skyim-se(hse)°; 372 hrhe-hho°; 376 hdza-htrog° (pp. 145, 220, 248).

hdzin = Tib. hdzin, seize, hold. 74 hio^o; 369 hgoho^o (pp. 274, 331).

hdzim. See hdzamo.

hdzu I = gdzu, ass, q.v. 183 -hdrohphor; 352 -hdro-hkus (pp. 157, 285, 332).

II. See smu-hdzu.

hdzud = Tib. chud, be wasted, consumed (also hjud, hdzud, insert). 42 hkyań-hrgyańo (p. 299).

hdzuhi = hdzu, feign? (Tib. hdzu, rdzu, disguise oneself, pretend? Or hju, hdzu, catch at?) +hi. 344, 345 h\u00e9es-h\u00e9io (p. 269).

hdzur = Tib. hdzur, zur, go aside, a corner, side-note, &c. (p. 257). 45 skah-rah^o; 173 klag-hrwad^o (?) (pp. 191, 257, 317, 343).

hdze = Tib. ze, zehu, cushion; gzed, carry, dc. 63 hyań-so^o; 110 spyi^o; 296 (?) (p. 335).

hdzehi. See hdzo-htsah.

hdzehu = Tib. gze-re, weak, &c. (pp. 335, 368). 138 -rje (pp. 218, 335).

hdzer (? lect. ?). 375.

hdzo I = hjo, chief, or hdzohu, man ? 385 -chi-te; 64 -re-htsao (pp. 305, 308). H? 76, 353 do-ldo^o (pp. 322-3). hdzo-htsah 29; -hdza 262; -hdzehi 338 (2); -htseh 364 = htso--htsah/htsehi, q.v. (On the -chi see pp. 191-2. Possibly = Tib. cha-cho, matched: only in glahtso-htsah could the htso (29 hdzo) appositely signify 'man'). (pp. 274, 283).

hdzoń = Tib. rdzoń, castle. See also hrdzoń, hjoń, joń (pp. 150-1, 171, 241). 64, 139, 140 Mońo; 194 -hyo-hši; 195 hlda-hko-geo; 205 -skyar-hrehi; 299 hri-hňoo; 356 -hyo-hšid (pp. 201, 241, 243, 265-6, 305, 308, 329).

hdzon = Tib. zon, gzon, keep watch; dgra-zon, guard-post. 337 stor-

htaho (p. 335).

hdzom = Tib. hdzom, meet (p. 279). 134 hkhog-hnoñ^o; 282, 284 hrim^o; 295 hsog-ge^o (pp. 282, 321, 329).

hdzohu, male, man. 137 -ro; 138 -hto-hrun; 324 -hkru-hyog, -hkhad-hto (pp. 199, 218, 246, 275, 338).

hdzoho = hjo, gzo, dec., Tib. za, zo, dec., eat (p. 334). 362 hkohu-promo (pp. 274, 316, 335).

hdzor, perhaps for hdzo II, as in 353 (cf. 76). 77 (do?) -hldo.

hdzwe = tswehu, htswe? (pp. 269, 368). 39 ses-hmado (p. 269).

hdzwehe = hdzwe, q.v. 36 seshmado (p. 269).

rdzar, written for rdza (= hdza I, friend, dv., q.v.), or hdzar, -re. See also hrdza, hrdzah (p. 352). 287, 290 hyan-hkah^o (pp. 315-16).

rdzum = Tib. hdzum, smile. Sce also hrdzum (p. 350). 263 -me (pp. 271 n., 283).

rdze = Tib. rje, rdze, chieftain (p. 366). See also rje, hrje. 138 ldano (pp. 228, 287).

rdzo = Tib. mdzo, the cross between the yak-bull and the cow (pp. 258, 349). 132 hthano; 220 thano (pp. 173, 258). rdzogs = Tib. rdzogs, complete, fulfil (pp. 213, 348). 157 glo-ta^o.

rdzor I written for rdzo (q.v.) -re. See also hrdzor. 227 mughguo; 228 hbri-hguo (pp. 215-16).

II. written for hdzo, man, or hjo, chief,+re. See also hrdzro. 369 hšeheo (p. 239).

ḥrdza = hdza I, friend. See also rdzar, ḥrdzaḥ (pp. 315, 352). 296 hkhaḥo, hkaho; 382 hrgyeo. hrdzaḥ. 38 hldyaḥo ohdzaḥ.

hrdzah - hrdza, friend, q.v. 46

-hgo-hpo (p. 286).
hrdzum = rdzum, q.v. 80 gñio (pp. 186, 271, 293).

hrdzur = hdzur, go aside, &c., q.v. (pp. 350, 352). 221 hthanhgamo.

hrdzo = rdzo, q.v. 16 hkrug°; 219 htan° (p. 144).

hrdzoń = hdzoń, castle, q.v. (pp. 150, 348). 194-hyo-hśi (p. 241).

hrdzor = rdzor I (= rdzo+re), q.v. 226 mor-hgu^o (pp. 215-16). hrdzro, written for hrdzo (= hdzo

hrdzro, written for hrdzo (= hdzo I, man, or hjo, chief)+re. 49 gšeo (p. 239).

W

wa I, make, do, or Auxiliary Verb.:
cf. Tib. bas, done with, and see
also hwa, hwah, hwas, gwah, hgwa, hgwah (pp. 33740). 179 gsom^o; 309 hmu^o
(pp. 182, 270, 338). See also
kya (hkya)-wa-ñe, rgoń-wa,
hwi-wa.

II = Tib. hbah, sediment? 190 hyaho (pp. 228, 285).

wa-ḥdan = Tib. o-ldon, ho-don, windpipe. 258 (p. 221). See also hwa-ḥldan.

war (p. 341). See also hwar. 101 hrano.

we = Tib. byed, Hsi-hsia we, make, do (pp. 196, n. 2, 337). See also weḥi I, ḥwe, ḥweḥi I, ḥweḥe, ḥwer, g-we, g-weḥi, g-weḥe, g-wer. 114 hraho; 191 hrao; 381 tsig-Mono (pp. 282, 283, 285).

weḥi I = we, q.v. See also ḥweḥi, hweḥe. 100 hkoo; 139 hraho; 196 hwamo (pp. 190, 243, 337).
II cream? See also hwehi II. 74

-nehu (pp. 250-1).

g-waḥ = wa, hwa, dec., q.v. (pp. 337-40). 129 -hram; 224 -hrśań (pp. 342, 343, 361).

g-we = we, make, do, q.v. (pp. 196, n. 2, 346). 152 -hku-rho; 197 rmań-hldabo; 198 hldańhkhańo; 201 rmań-ńao; 205 -hkor; 206, 207 rmań-ńa-g-we--re-g-we; 375 hphyo-hlio? (pp. 228, 239).

g-weḥi = g-we, q.r. (pp. 196, n. 2, 346). 199 rmań-ńaº; 263 meº (p. 283).

g-weḥe = g-we, q.v. (pp. 196, n. 2, 346). 201 rmań-ńaº; 298 hswahº; 357 -hldyah, -sko.

g-wer, written for g-we, make, dc., q.v.,+re. See also hwer (pp. 196, n. 2, 346). 164 swah^o; 301 swa^o (pp. 270, 277).

ḥwa I = wa I, q.v. See also ḥwaḥ, g-waḥ. 121 hśiº; 137 -hkaḥ; 162 hdrabº; 228 -hrśaṅ; 230 -bżer; 269 -hrňo; 270 -rgya; 317 -ne; 339 hkyaḥº (pp. 218, 253-5, 275, 292, 315, 338, 339).

— -ste, written for hwas, q.v., +te (a Suffix, pp. 188-90). 71, 73, 75 (pp. 273, 337-8).

II -hldan = wa-hdan, q.v. See also hwah-hldan, 121, 278 (pp. 178, 221).

III. See hwi-hwa, rat, mouse. 273 (pp. 297, 341).

hwag = Tib. hbag, be defiled. See also hbog. 324 g-yah-hpano (pp. 228, 340).

hwań = Tib. dbań, power (pp. 341, 346 and n.). 5 ram (†) -ge^o, klu-ge^o; 210 -ta, a Suffix, pp. 182-3 (pp. 245, 341, 361).

hwad = Tib. hbad, watch, hbod, call out, endeavour. See also hbod (pp. 340-1). 6 myehyano: 14 hsehe-hwad-hwad; 88 hcog-hdo-dze°; 109 tho--rgyam-ge°; 268 -hldań-krań; 301 hri-hci-hwadhi; 334 hkeg--rko°; 335 -hwah-rno (pp. 265-6, 269, 271, 338, 340).

hwadhi = hwad, q.v., +hi. 301 (pp.

265, 340).

hwam, residence or village = Tib. bams, boms, sbam, collect (p. 243). 11 -hŝid; 155 -hnom--son; 196 -wehi; 258 -nehu (pp. 241, 245, 340, 361).

hwah = hwa I, q.v. 18 hbaro (†); 172 hdrabo; 224 -hršan; 228 -glah; 269 -ne, -hrno; 270 -hldanra; 334 -hrog; 335 hwado; 353 -hrah (pp. 178, 254, 338, 339, 340).

hwar I = Tib. hbar, burn, blaze, bloom (p. 341). 29 -hwar (†); 198 -ta, a Suffix, pp. 182-3.

II, written for hwa I, do, dec., +re. 354 naño (p. 230).

III ? 107 hrano. See also war (p. 341).

hwars, perhaps Aorist of hwar I. 203 cha-hru^o.

hwas, Aorist of hwa I = Tib. bas, done for, disposed of. See also hwa-ste (for hwas-te). 308 hman-hrio (p. 337).

hwi I 386 rmañ^o. Cf. rmañ-bri.
(II) -wa/hwa/hwehi = Tib. byi-ba, mouse, rat, (On -eḥi see p. 191). 173 hwehi; 201 wa; 273 hwa (pp. 257, 297, 341).

hwe = we, wehi, do, make, dec., q.v. See also hwehi I, hwehe, hwer. 85 rñe^o; 125 hldañ-krañ^o; 157 hldañ^o; 374 hpah^o (pp. 220, 288, 289, 335, 341).

hwen, vain? = Tib. dben, solitary, secret; dben-gtam, secret talk; Hsi-hsia wen, bad? 159 hlabta^o (p. 341).

hwehi I = hwe, we, do, make, dec., q.v. 380 hrahio; 383 hdzah--hldaho.

II = wehi II ? 47 -hsi-hpo (pp-251, 341).

III hwi-hwehi. See hwi. 173 (pp. 257, 341).

hwehe = hwe I, dec., q.v. 348 hgwego (pp. 248, 343).

hwer, written for hwe, q.v.,+re. 19 htio.

hwyir = Tib. hbyer, escape. 85 rhehwe-ge^o (pp. 220, 341).

rw-. See under R.

Ž

bžir = Hsi-hsia gžir, wise? (pp. 167-8, 315). 207 hldio (p. 315).

bžer = Tib. bžer, fort (?) (pp. 167– 8, 339–40). 19 htib^o; 177 hkohu-prom^o; 230 hwa^o (pp. 225, 339).

ržaň, fierce, violent? (pp. 167-8, 352). 54 -hba; 56 rňe-hňoo.

Z

gzu = gdzu, hdzu I, ass, q.v. See also hju, hzu (pp. 168, n. 1, 251-2), 307 -hbyi; 353 -hdro--hphor (pp. 276, 332).

gzo = Tib. zos, Imperative, &c., of za, eat (pp. 199, 334-5). 165 hrgu-ma^o (pp. 277, 335). See also hjo, hdzoho.

bzod = Tib. bzod, bear, endure (p. 168). 72 hsor-htsam^o (p. 342).

gbzaň (†) = Tib, bzaň, fine, large; but see also hdzaň II. 21 g-rio (p. 168).

hzah = Tib. bzah, woman, wife. 190 hmo[-]r[e]^o (pp. 240, 285).

hzu = gzu, &c., ass, q.v. (p. 168). 188 hlkyań^o; 117 rań-hehe^o (pp. 251-2, 285).

H

(For h as Prefix see the Consonants in general.)

ḥa I written for h (with mistaken punctuation). 61 -yañ for hyañ; 82 rbyo-ha-ge; 103 -rta for hrta; 236 -glah for hglah; 320 -stoñ for hstoñ?

II mineriting for following h. 119.

hi. Sentence-ending Particle, probably exclamatory (p. 177), following A: Consonants (with or without interpunct). List, p. 176.
B: Vowels. List, with discussion of doubtful cases, pp. 176-7.

hukah, written for hkah. 46 (p. 286). hurah, written for hran. 230.

Y

yan I = Tib. yan, also, even, a Particle following the word, or sense, qualified and placed nearly always (exceptions, 345 gdagyan, 357 hram-yan) at the end of its clause or and before a caesura point in a verse. See also hyan I (pp. 204, 311). 79, 80, 92, 119, 123, 160, 161, 162, 173, 180, 306, 332, 345, 357.

II = Tib. yań (Chin. yang?), runnel, watercourse = yur. See also hyań III (p. 311). 179 hldyańo obyo; 355 -hldyah-hldyah (p.

329).

III = I? See ca-yan, hcahhyan, hchah-yan.

yuhu = Tib. yul, eillage, district, country. See also hyuhu I, hyu III (pp. 320, 333). 369 hldyaño.

yer = Tib. yer, g-yer, to be wide awake; g-yer-po, expert, wise. See also hyer, g-yer. 141 hsaho (p. 278).

yod, possibly connected with Tib. g-yo, be unsteady, g-yob, shake, &c. 16 hrho-hyod. See also

hyod (p. 258).

yon, Auxiliary Verb with probably Future sense, as in Tib. hon, yon. See also 2-yoho, hyon, hyoho (p. 199). 160 stor-doro (p. 253).

yob = Tib. yab, g-yob, be pendulous, shake; g-yob, fan, curtain. See also hyob. 166 hsaho

(pp. 142, 200).

g-yañ = Tib. gyañ(-ra), cattle-(yard)? or g-yañ = hyañ II, good, &c., q.v.? 31 -ra (p. 311).
g-yaĥ I = superior, cf. Tib. ya, antithetic to ma, lower (pp. 226-7). See also hyah I. 136 gldagnago; 152 -htsa (!); 271 htorhrtaho; 287 -hthan (pp. 228, 297).

II = Tib. ya, match, adversary, rival (pp. 227-8). 156 -tamehi; 317 hldogo oto; 152 -htsa (?) (pp. 224, 323, 338-9). See also hyah II.

III front, cf. Tib. g-yar, mouth, face, front (pp. 228-9). 323

-hpan (p. 228).

g-yar = Tib. yar, Adverbial form of g-yah I (p. 227). 128 hkhar--hrpago; 136 hkhar-rpago (pp. 242-3, 263, 305).

g-yaha, written for g-yah, 266.

g-yehi? = hgyehi, q.v. (be divided, Tib. hgyed?). See also hyed. 271 hldyan-ma°.

g-yeḥe = g-yeḥi (be divided?). 166 hkohu-promo (p. 276).

g-yer = yer, q.v. See also hyer. 167 hscah°; 330 hså°; 346 hsahh°; 366 -hnor (pp. 278, 332).

g-yo = Tib. g-yo, move, waver. See also g-yos, hyos (pp. 141-2). 27 g-rah^o; 28-hpud-to (pp. 231, 309).

g-yog I = Tib. hog, yog, low, low ground, valley. See also hyog I (p. 266). 15, 51 -hsan-ma--hpul; 200 -hldah a Suffix, p. 183; 299 hdzoń°; 320 hrgyah-hñi-hke° (pp. 265-6, 267, 279).

g-yoḥo = yon, hyoḥo, q.v. (p. 199). 142 stor-hdoro.

g-yos (?), Aorist of g-yo, q.v. 26 hrah^o (p. 197 n.).

hya, sheep (p. 94). 45 hñaño (p. 343).
hyañ I = yañ I, also, even, q.v. For list of occurrences see p. 311.

II good (antithetic to mor, bad) or superior (pp. 215-16, 311). 5 háes-bego; 10 ·htaň; 41 ·rmyi; 63 ·tsa; 64 ·ge; 66, 226 ·hrah; 287, 290 ·hkah-rdza; 383 ·hthe; 388 ·tsa (pp. 187, 216, 274, 304, 305, 315, 318, 329). III = yañ II, runnel, &c., q.v. (p. 311). 178 hldyañ^o hyo; 316 -hdyañ (†); 355 -re-rgyeñ-nayañ-; 367 hldyañ-hyahñ-hyo, hyahñ-goñ; 391 hldyañ-hyañhyo (pp. 179, 329).

IV, hyań-hso? = Tib. yańs, large. 63 -hrňi, -hdze (pp. 303, 335).

63 -hrñi, -hdze (pp. 303, 335).
V, heah-hyañ, hehah-yañ. 241
-hbro; 242 -thor (pp. 303-4).
See caº, heahº, hehahº.

hyah I = g-yah I, superior, q.v. 72
-hrgehe; 111 hso-hnaho (?); 112
hmah-hldano; 133 hre-hldio (?
hyah II); 257 -rmah; 285, 286,
288 -hthan; 294 -hto, a Suffix,
pp. 184-6; 315, 318 -htan; 304
-hdad; 306 -hdahd; 374
hthoo (?). See also hyah III
(pp. 216, 227, 229, 230, 288,
296, 297, 298, 323, 361).

 II = g-yah II, match, adversary, rival. 65, 67 -hdo, p. 186; 222, 386 -htah, a Suffix, pp. 182-3; 315 -htoho, pp. 184-6 (pp. 228, 229, 274, 287, 296, 323, 331).

III = g-yah III, front, face, &c. 190 -wa-hkan; 221 -hkru-hbro; 252 -me; 325 -hkruhu-hbro; 266-70, 272 -ge—these to be placed under hyah I? (pp. 228, 260, 274, 281, 285, 298, 339).

hyah-hnehi = Tib. ya-na, fear. 115 -hnahd (pp. 191, 217).

hyim, diminish. 59 hran-hgamo (p. 240).

 --sto, written for hyims-to (a Suffix, pp. 184-6). 29 hdec (p. 259).

hyu I. 82 heah-rteo (p. 320).

II. 212 khyos-hkhyano (p. 359).
III = yuhu, village, district, country, q.v. See also hyuhu (p. 333). 123, 372, 387 hldyano; 147 -sad; 305 nano; 345, 350, 351 -hstsah; 346 -hgyi-ka (pp. 246, 292, 305).

hyun = Tib, yun, space of time. 260 hgo-hsor-re^o (p. 261).

hyuhu I = yuhu, village, district, dec.; hyu III, q.v. 49 rhamnaro; 368 hrham-hdaro (p. 320). II = I? 332 hklu-hprah^o; 333 hrko^o (p. 223).

hyed = Tib. hgye, hgyed, divide, scatter, dc. See also hgye (pp. 235-6, 291). 53 me^o; 71 g-rono; 393 sme^o (pp. 273, 337).

hyer = yer, g.yer, awake, &c., q.v. 250 hstsah^o; 267 hsah^o; 297 hscah^o (p. 278).

hyo I = Tib. yo, g-yo, waver, shake, crooked, dc. See also g-yo, g-yos, hyos (p. 242). 178, 179, 367, 391 hyano/yano/hyanno; 179 gsom-wao; 194 -hsi; 356 -hsid (pp. 179, 235, 241-2, 338, 353).

II = Tib. yo, set in motion, manage (khab-yo). 154 hehoso; 326 hrgye(d)o; 338 hrgyedo (pp. 273, 291).

hyog I = Tib. g-yog, servant, subordinate. 134 re-hmono (†); 254 -hprah-hdag (†); 289, 321, 323, 324 hkruo/kruhuo/ hkhruhuo (pp. 295-6).

II = Tib. yog-pa, pole, stick. 259
-hdag (pp. 192, 202, 343).

hyogs = hyog I, servant, &c. q.v. 18 hkyano (p. 295).

hyod = yod, q.v. 16 -yod (p. 258).
hyon = yon, q.v. (p. 199). 161-3
stor-hdoro (p. 253).

hyob = yob, be pendulous, shake, q.e. 22 smuḥu-hku^o; 31-2 hbra-hldar-ma^o (pp. 319-20).

hyoho = g-yoho, q.v. 119 storhdoro (pp. 199, 243).

hyor = Tib. yor, g-yor, heap, a votive cairn (obo, lab-rtse) on a route. 239 hphag-hbab-ge^o; 299 g-ri-sti^o; 300 hrihi-sti^o (pp-265-6).

hyos, Aorist of g-yo, shake, quake, q.v., and g-yos (pp. 196-7). 25 hrah^o; 26, 34 g-rah^o; 96, 98 rgor^o (pp. 138, 262, 335, 345).

R

-r with equivalence to re, incorporra ated in the preceding monosyllable; A: after Vowels, pp. 173-5; B: after Consonants, pp. 178-9 (pp. 312-13).

ra = Tib, ra (enclosed or limited) place. See also rah, g-rah I, hra I, hrā, hrah I, hrahi, hrar (pp. 312-14), 7 skuhu-ra?; 31 g-yano; 49 heeo; 78 mehio; 148 rmano; 263, 265, 278 gśano; 264, 265 hnoo (pp. 244, 246).

rag = Tib. rags, dyke, embankment. See also hrag (p. 147). 283 hgabo.

ran I = Tib, ran, self. See also hran I.

 -hche, self-willed (cf. Tib. ranhdod). See also hran (p. 252).

II = Tib. ran, rans, be pleased? See also hran II. 103 ma^o(p.294).

rab = Tib. rab, ford? See also hrab. 376 -hgo (p. 261).

ram, harmony, concordant. See also hram (pp. 220, 277, 293). 5 ? lect.; 157 skye-ta^o (pp. 239, 293).

raḥ = ra, q.v. See also ḥraḥ, ḥraḥi. 45 skaḥo; 74 hphaḥmao; 227 hthamo; 279 hhoo (pp. 274, 317).

ru = Tib. ru, horn. See also hru, hruhu. 70 -ge-hkrom; 103 rgono; 347, 351 glyano (pp. 303-4, 333).

- glan, horned ox. 66 (p. 318).

re I = Tib. re, red, is, being, mostly at end of a Subordinate Clause, but sometimes with Suffix te or to (pp. 173-5, 200). See also hre I, hrehi, sta-re. 5, 6, 32, 36 and passim.

—-hto (a Suffix, pp. 184-6). 382.
II = Tib. re, each, every; res, times, requital (perhaps derived from I) (p. 202). See also hre II, hrehe. 154 myio; 251 joo; 252 hlabo; 250, 255, 276-7. (pp. 174, 236, 274).

III = Tib. re, hope. See also hre III. 211 -mye.

re-ma (for me?) -hnad? 45.

re-hmon 134 -hyog-re.

ro = Tib. -ro country, district, (large) place. See also roho, hro I (p. 314). 137 hdzohu^o; 381 spo^o (pp. 218, 275, 338).

rog I = Tib. rogs, grogs, comrade, assistant. See also hrog. 211 -hji-rdan (?) (p. 260).

II = Tib. rog, black? 156 na^o (p. 239).

rom = Tib. rum, dark (space) ! See also hrom (p. 368). 100 na^o (p. 293).

roho = ro, q.v. 384 ldyoo (p. 327).
rwa = Tib. rwa, horn. See also hrwa. 45 hrino (p. 343).

rwań = Tib. dwańs, lustre, bright, force of language. See also dwań. 178 hkaho (p. 179).

rwehi, end, be ended, be destroyed?

See also rwer, hrwehi. 98
hkhor-kyano (p. 345).

rwer. Locative form of rwe(hi). 97 (pp. 262, 345).

rwyin = Tib. hbyin, hbyin, sink; dbyins, space? 33 hnah-hran-geo (p. 346).

rwye=Tib, dbye, divide; dbyes, expanse, &c. See also hbye, rbye. 15 hbuo; 91 -htah, a Suffix, pp. 182-3 (pp. 267, 327, 345).

g-rah I = ra, rah, hra, hrah, place, q.v. 7, 20 -gsog-hner; 26, 34 -hyos; 27 -g-yo (pp. 309, 312-13, 335, 361).

II = Tib. dgra, enemy. 262 -nag; 314 -hsah-hkhehe (pp. 224, 262, 283, 313).

III = Tib. ra, goat † 276 -hdzam--nag (p. 314).

g-ri I = Tib. ri, mountain. See also g-riḥi, ḥri, ḥriḥi (pp. 264-71). 21 -hruhu; 34 śido; 35 meḥio; 186 hldyaño; 252-hbañ; 290 hbsoo; 296 hswaḥo (†); 299 -sti; 301 -hrde-hldah, -dze; 308 -ḥpañ; 312 -sta-meḥi; 313 -hkruḥu-hbro; 314 -hjim (pp. 201, 254, 265, 270, 280, 298, 303, 321, 331).

II = Tib. ri-ba, worth, price. 157 -ta, a Suffix, pp. 182-3 (p. 267).

g-rihi = g-ri I, q.v. 298 -hldom 309 -hkun; 312 -sta-mehi (pp. 201, 266, 270). g-rub = Tib. grub, rub, rush in a body; rub-te, all. See also hrub (p. 221), 261 -hgoho (p. 342).

g-ron = Tib. gron/gran, cold, or gron, grons, die. See also hron II. 71 -hyed (pp. 268-9, 273, 337).

hra I = ra, dec., place, q.v. See also hrah. 50 hee°; 347 stan-hro°. II † 249 -hyan.

hrag = rag, dyke, embankment, q.v. 13 hkra^o; 55 -hkyer; 256 -ma--hbog; 283 hgah^o (pp. 147, 173).

hran I = ran I, self, q.v. [3], 5, 6, 8, 37 -hlda/hldah; 59 -hgam; 21, 166, 167 -hrah; 33 hnah°; 101, 107 -war/hwar; 104 hkah° (1); 116, 135 -pu-glo/hlo; 117 -hkah; 147 -hrgyan; 192 rgyed°; 205 -klar; 259 -hdom?; 308, 310, 311 hgah-hldoñ° (pp. 142, 200, 202, 252, 270, 283, 314, 319, 343, 345-6).

II = ran II, be pleased, q.v. 68 gloo; 214, 329 hkah/hkhahgsano; 308, 310, 311 hgahhldono (†); 326, 338 hrgye/ hrgyed-hvoo (pp. 268, 270, 314).

 (I) -hche, self-willed = rano, q.v.
 115 (p. 252). See also hdrabhwa-hran (II).

hrab = rab, ford, q.v. 51 hmar-

-hbah-geo.

hram = ram, agreeable, harmony, dc., q.v. (p. 293). 10 hlahgsomo (?); 35, 37, 82, 86, 87 hcogo; 90, 94, 97, 119, 120-3, 365 htsogo; 49 hrño-heaño; 73, 76 hla/laho; 129 g-waho; 288 hswaho; 368 hrño-hpraño; 376 hdza-htrogo (pp. 190, 220, 239, 262, 265, 270, 288, 291-3, 321, 342, 345).

II, group, company (hardly differentfrom I). 184-hkań-hkań (?); 281 hboo; 357 -yań-phlań (p. 231).

hrah I = ra, dec., place, q.v. 8, 25
 -hyos; 21, 166, 167 hrano; 23
 hsea-hbego; 26 -g-yos; 56 heeo;
 66, 226 hyano; 77 -hrtah; 114

-rtah, -we-rtah; 139 -weḥi-rta; 146, 273, 358 -htoh; 186, 369 meḥio; 216 hṛgyedo; 225, 236, 244, 246 -hldi; 228 braḥo; 277 gsaḥ-re -htsah -reo; 315 rgoo; 341, 392 rgyedo; 342 myeo? rgye[d]o?; 353 hwaho; 370 meḥi-speḥio (pp. 140-2, 228, 229, 243, 261, 262, 281, 282, 306, 313, 318, 319, 331).

II = g-rah II, enemy, q.v. 43 -ldah (?); 149 -shiń-ñe; 182 -rte (?); 202 -hmad; 354 -hrtre (pp. 222, 313, 334).

hrahi = hrah+hi? 380.

hrar, written for hrab, q.v.,+re (pp. 173-4). 216, 243, 246, 248 hrgyed°; 237 rgyed° (p. 140).

hras = gras, hgras, aligned, q.v. (p. 266). 344 hlah-hkyaño

(p. 269).

hri = Tib. ri, mountain. See also g-ri I, g-rihi, hrihi (pp. 264-71). 13 hdoñ°; 14 hrañ°; 19 -hldyañ; 168 hbyi°; 294 -hkruhu-hbroho; 295 hstsah°; 297 hscah-hyer°; 297 rñehe--hbrom°; 299 -hño; 300 -hgru; 300 -hei; 308 -hwas; 311, 312 -stah-mehi (pp. 142, 200, 201, 229, 254, 265, 267, 270-1, 332, 337, 340).

hrin = Tib. rin, long. 44 -rwa

(p. 343).

hrim = Tib. rim, order, succession, degree; rim-hgro, ceremony, attendance (p. 308). 282, 284 -hdzom; 293, 297 -ge-hgrus; 300 -hldohu; 319 -re-hldohu; 347, 348 -glehu (pp. 265, 282, 298, 308, 321).

hrihi = hri, mountain, q.v. 62 háid°; 290 hstsah°; 291 hbos°; 293 hbos°; 294, 297 -hdom; 300 -sti; 302 -hphan; 305 -hrgam (pp. 171, 246, 267, 270-1, 297, 298, 303, 306).

hris = Tib. hbri, bris, diminish? cf. ris from hbri, write. 84 heag-

-rgyago (p. 259).

hru = ru, horn, q.v. See also hruhu. 82 hrgon-hru-geo; 103 rgon-ru-ge^o; 202, 203 hcha^o/cha^o(?); 238 hsehe-hldu^o; 276 hsu-re^o (pp. 156, 321, 333).

hrug = Tib. (mgo)-rug, (head) bowed down. 47 hbu^o (pp. 250, 286).

hrun = Tib. run, to be right, ought, have to, &c. See also hruhi (p. 199). 30, 32 hrgu-hto^o; 80 stor-to^o; 138 hdzohu-hto^o, storhto^o (p. 335).

hrub = g-rub, rush in a body, q.v. 108 hno-broo; 349 hthar-phyan--geo (pp. 221, 248, 343).

hruhi = hrun, q.v.,+hi (p. 199). 167 stor-hto^o.

ḥruḥu = ru, hru, horn, q.v. 21 g-ri°; 293 hriḥi° (pp. 297, 298).

hre I = re I, is, being, q.v. 155 šid--rgyańo?; 159 hnah-hehoso, spye-choso (p. 145).

II = re II, each, every, times, q.v. 48 -ge-rgyo; 251 hbañ°; 267 hpra° (2) (p. 330).

III = re III, hope, q.v. 132 -hldi; 155 śido? (pp. 171, 216, 229).

hreg = Tib. hbreg, bregs, regs, cut off, amputate, 122 hram^o (p. 293).

hrehi = re I, is, q.v., +hi. 200 rñe-ne^o; 204 gsań-hkah^o; 205 hdzoń-skyar^o (pp. 200, 222).

hrehe = re II, each, &c., q.v. 43 pra°; 249 ban°; 251 hban° (p. 274).

hro I = ro, country, place, dc., q.v. 11 hmu°; 19 hldu°; 181 hpro°; 213 hgo° (†); 272 hldyañ-pah°; 333 -bgoñ; 345 rgyeb-bchi°; 347 stañ°; 377 hpah-hldan°; 384 hldyo°; 386 hldyañ°; 387 hldyoñ° (pp. 155-6, 269, 270, 274, 306, 331).

II, wolf? 110 -hbehi-hbah; 234 htsago ohbehi-hbar; 335 hrog-geo (?) (p. 293). See also hror.

III = Tib. ro, corpse ? 198 -ta, a Suffix, pp. 182-3 (p. 341).

hrog I = rog I, comrade, assistant, q.v. 50 -hnor; 197 mu^o; 334 hwah^o; 335 -ge-hro (pp. 318, 338). 11 = Tib, grog, a deep ravine with torrent. 344 hbo-hrono (p. 231).

hron I = Tib. ron, a deep gorge (p. 268). 68, 371, 373, 384, 386, 389 hdzam-hbrono; 344 hboo; 373-7 hkado (pp. 231, 250, 268, 269, 331).

II = g-ron II, Tib. gron, grons, die; cf. gron, gran, cold. 36 -hkea (p. 269).

hron, Imperative form (p. 199), 'repose' ? 378 rkom-geo.

hrom (vacant) space = rom, q.v. 107 na°; 257 htor...°; 385 -ge-hti (pp. 302, 336).

hror, written for hro II, wolf, q.v., +re. 303, 310 rhe/hrhe-hldaho (p. 270).

hrwa, bow = rwa, horn, q.v.; cf. Tib. rwa-gżu, bow. 59 -hdah--hpog (p. 343).

hrwan = Tib. bran, dwelling-place. 11 -hkan-hkan (p. 344).

hrwad I = Tib. rbad, harsh noise (pp. 257, 309). 32 -hmań--hldah (p. 345).

II = Tib. rbad, screaming eagle. 172 -hban-prom; 173 klago (pp. 257, 345).

hrwehi, end, be destroyed = rwehi, q.v. 22 hrań-hrah^o; 27 hldań--rmañ^o; 113 hldań-krañ^o; 214 -gtsu-ge (pp. 259, 291, 345).

hrlehi, authorities = hlde I, hldehi, hldehe, q.v. 288 -hswah-hram (pp. 278-9).

hrlomhi = hrlom = glom, conceit, covet, q.v.,+hi. 385 hrñe-ge⁰ (p. 336).

hrloho, swirl? 15 hmar-hbah-geo (p. 350).

L

In I, Postposition, to, for (Tib. la) (p. 193). 69 hbehi^o, hphag^o; 70 hbyig^o (pp. 193, 247-50).

II = Tib. la, a high pass. 345 -po[-]r[e] (p. 269).

Ia-Ia, a jingle, signifying something overt or large, antithetic to Ii-Ii, q.v. 109 pa^o (p. 280 and n. I). lan = Tib. ran in; mo-ran, lone female (p. 221); but see mo I. 108 moo (p. 221).

lad = Tib. lan, glan, reply, retribution. See also hlad (pp. 303-4). 225, 226 hrśańo; 235 rñeo; 244 gseo (pp. 141, 303, 304).

lamhi = Tib, lam, road, path, journey.+hi. See also hlam. 229 hršań-hgamo, hgwah-hršańo.

lah = hla, Tib. zla, moon, q.v. 75 -hram-hte (pp. 273, 337-8).

li-li, a jingle, signifying something sly or small, antithetic to la-la, q.v. (p. 280, n. 1). Cf. Tib. chili-li, si-li-li. 109 hjimo.

le = Tib. leb, flat ? 219, 220 hthano

(p. 272).

lom, well ! (p. 233). 363 hmuo.

Iol = Tib, rol, play ? But see hlon. 194 ste-gdzu-geo; 195 hthar--mye-geo (p. 241).

hla = lah, moon, q.v. 73 -hram--hte (pp. 273, 337-8).

hlan? 17 knoro.

- - hjan, camel ? Cf. Hsi-hsia lannön in Laufer, 'The Si-hia Language,' pp. 20, 23-4. 101, 107.

hlad = lad, reply, retribution, q.v. 225, 226, 227 háanº; 230, 237 rñe-geo; 231, 232, 239 rñeo; 233, 236, 237 glabo/hglao; 238, 243, 245, 246, 247 -mah-mahna, -ma-mahna, -ma-ma-hna, -mahman; 240 gse-hldao; 240, 242 gseo; 247 -hton (pp. 141, 183, 230, 234, 303-4, 361).

hlab = Tib. lab, speak. See also glab, hlobhi. 67, 70 -me; 159, 181 -ta, a Suffix, pp. 182-3; 180 gsań-hdio; 181 gsań-hśego; 182 -ge-plan-na: 252 -re: 253 -me; 325 -hko-hgyan; 385 -hñañ (pp. 145-6, 155-6, 173, 197, 199, 231, 264, 272-3, 274-5, 331, 341).

hlam = lam, road, journey, q.v. 25 hrah-hyoso; 68 hnao; 232 rñe--hlad-geo (pp. 138, 238).

blamna = blam+na. 236 glah--hlado.

hlamhi = hlam+bi. 224 hwah--hrsano; 225, 226 hrsan-lad/ hlado: 226, 227 hśań-hlado: 228 hwa-hrśańo; 220 hgwah-hrśańo; 240 gse-hlda-hlado (p. 183).

hli, wing? (p. 132), 375 hphyoo.

hlo I, group, company, perhaps = hldohu (Tib. lo), q.v. (pp. 322-154 -ge-blah-hldo: 275 hno-reo; 383 rgyeo (pp. 222, 285).

II. See pu-glo (hlo).

hlon = Tib. lon, arrive. But see lol. 357 thar-mye-geo (p. 241). hlobhi = hlob, Imperative of hlab, q.v., + hi. 378 hse-geo (p. 199).

hloho = blo I or blo II, q.v. 381 hpu^o (p. 157).

ši I = Tib. ši, die. See also gši, bši, hśi I (p. 226). 120 -rgo (pp. 226, 291-2).

II, winter (p. 226) = Mo-so s'ih? 160 -hehos (pp. 145-6, 172, 217, 320).

sid I, high. See also hsid I (pp. 225- 34 -g-ri; 60 hkhu-tsa^o; 151 -rgyan-hnom (pp. 145, 172, 303).

II = ŝi, perish. See also hŝid II = Tib. sid, funeral ceremony (p. 226). 366 rgoń-wa^o (p. 332).

śud = Tib. śud, bśud, rub, get scratched, galled. See also hsud, hsud (p. 296, n. 1). 185 -mehi; 198 hdi-gsomo; 207 tshu-gsomo (p. 139).

śe, wise, wisdom, cf. Hsi-hsia gse, gseh (pp. 223-4). See also ses, gśe, hśe, hśehe, hśes. 91 -chan; 258 -rgo-hldom (pp. 262, 318).

seg = Tib. sreg, bsreg, bsregs, burn (irregular s < sr due to some confusion). See also gseg, hseg. 159 hldań-myio; 283 -sme; 375 -sme (pp. 145-6).

ses, wise, Aorist form of se, q.v. See also hées (pp. 223-4). 36, 39 -hmad; 44 -gši-hlduhu; 44 -hśi-brehe; 332 -hkeg-hrko; 379
 -rtsig-Moń (pp. 223, 269, 322).

śod, lay low, cf. Tib. śod, low ground. See also hśod (p. 301). 198 hro-ta-śodce/śodts (pp. 341, 358-9).

śodce/śodts. See śod.

śon = Tib. son/son, gone, come (p. 355). 156 hwam-hnom^o.

śor = Tib. śor, flee, escape; bśor, chase, 203 -hlda, a Suffix, p. 183.

gśań, enmity, hate = Tib. śań. See also hśań I (p. 223). 30 -re; 86 (for gsań?) -sňań- -do; 263, 264, 278 -ra; 263 -kya; 264 -hdzam; 265 -na; 265 -tah, a Suffix, pp. 182-3; 273 -hrah--htoń; 279 -ge (?), -htag-htos (p. 317).

géi, Prospective form of si, die, q.v. 44 -hlduhu; 72 -brom-hnu; 344

-hdzuhi (p. 322).

gśim = Tib. gśin, agreeable, or sim, refresh, be well, happy. 268

hmu-klago (p. 298).

gśe = śe, śes, hśe, wise, wisdom, q.v. (pp. 223-4). 49 -hrdzro, q.v.; 329 briº; 343 sroń-ñeº (pp. 239, 253, 256).

gśeg = śeg, hśeg, burn, q.e. 330 hrgyo-hśeg-gśegra; 331 rbyo (for rgyo)-gśeg-gśer (p. 178).

géer, written for gsegr (p. 178). 331 sec géeg.

gśog = Tib. śog, gśog, bśog, wing. See also hśog I. 7, 20 -hner (p. 361).

bśi, Aorist form of śi, die, q.v. (p. 196). 196 -ta, a Suffix, pp. 182-3; 198 -re.

hśag = Tib. śags, bśags, talk, expound. 85 hňo-sto-ge⁰ (pp. 220, 341).

ḥśań I = gśań, enmity, hate, q.v. 81 -re-hśig; 120 -plim-plam; 199 -nag; 209 hkho^o; 225, 226, 227 -hlad; 300 hrim-hldohu^o; 367 -khyań (?); 393 -sme (pp. 192, 265, 271, 283, 291–2, 320).

II = Tib. bšah, ordure (p. 223).
15, 51 -ma-hpul; 255 -hdzah

(pp. 267, 327).

héam = Tib. éom, béoms, béam, béams, prepare, arrange, dec. (p. 235). 277 hpah-ge^o. See also beam, heams.

hśah = Tib. bśah, bśas, slaughter, kill, cut up. See also bśas (p. 289). 83 hnam-hte^o; 90 htsog-hram^o; 99 hnah-htsog^o; 125 hldań-hkrań^o (pp. 180, 288-9, 291).

háas, Aorist form of háah, q.v. 102

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hśig = Tib. bśig, bśigs, hjig, destroy. 81 hkyań-rgyańo, hśań--reo; 347 hrim-glehu-geo (p. 298).

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hseg I = seg, gseg, burn, q.v. 48 hphu^o; 282 -sme; 330 hrgyo^o (p. 282).

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hser, written for hie, wise, q.v., +re. 339 sron-hneo.

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336 -ta, a Suffix, pp. 182-3; 344, 345 -gši/hši-hdzuhi (pp. 223, 269).

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3, 5, 7, 20, 22-4.

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hśod = śod, loy low, q.v. (p. 301). 147 -te-rmag; 281 hbo-hram-ge-hśod-tsa (pp. 231, 300, 358-9).

-tsa. See h
śod; cf. śodce.

rśań, stern, or violent? See also hrśań (p. 277). 319, 320 swaho.

ḥrśań/rśań, stern, violent? cf. hśań (p. 277). 224 hwaho, g-waho; 225, 226 -lad; 228 hwao; 229 hwah-glaho, hgwaho; 319, 320 swah-rśań; 321 hswao (pp. 339, 343, 361).

sśam, possibly 'last' = Tib. śam, lower, under, later (pp. 235, 357). 255 -stom (p. 357).

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sad = Tib. gsod, bsad, sod, kill, destroy. See also hsad. 147

hyuo (pp. 299-300).

su = Tib. su, who (Interrogative, Relative, &c.). See also hsu I, (p. 201). 114 -me-hmehi; 145 -ge-stor-ta; 195 hldihi^o (pp. 172, 201, 232, 241, 245, 282, 299-300).

se I = Tib. rtse, se, top, house-top. See also hse II, rsehi, hrsehi (pp. 248-9, 348). 18 hskyimo; 67 hkoo (?); 69 skyimo; 143 htoro (pp. 248-9, 288).

[se-]hgro. Cf. Tib. rtser-hgro, chief,

principal. 67 hkoo.

II = gse, hse, injure, harm, q.v. 273 hwi-hwa^o (pp. 297, 341).

so = Tib. geon, live, life; so-nams,

husbandry. See also gso, gsohu, hso I.

—-hnah/na, life-place, home, family. See also hsoo, htsoo (pp. 293-4). 114, 117, 127, 365 (pp. 217, 282, 293-4).

swa I = Tib. so, swa, tooth. 93

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sram = Tib. sran, hard, enduring. See also hsram. 72 -pa-nar (p. 361).

sri = Tib. sri, a kind of devil? a woman's temper? (p. 357). 163 hseo; 349 -ge-gsen-hse.

sron = Tib. sron, srons, straight, straight-forward. 339 -hne; 343 -ne (p. 256).

slah = Tib. zla, friend, helper. 125 hldano (pp. 288-9, 335).

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slug I = Tib. zlug, bzlug, pour? 47 hñed-geo (p. 251).

II 359 hnu-glano (pp. 336, 368).
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slo = Tib. zlo, summon, call; bzlos, challenge; zlos, incantation, &c. 93 hsus^o; 99 -stah = slos-ta, with Suffix, pp. 182-3 (p. 336).

slog = Tib. zlog, bzlog, turn back, repel; slog, turn, invert (pp. 336, 368). 174 hnu-glano; 384 hrsehi-hpago (pp. 226, 336).

slod possibly = Tib. lhod, lod, glod, loose, relax (p. 357). 381 hbrio. slos Aorist form of alo, q.v.

gsan I = Tib. gsan, san, secret (p. 156). 17 rheo; 86 (see gsan); 204 -hkah; 329 hkhaho; 181 -hseg (1); 206 -rman (1) (pp. 155-6, 186, 200, 221).

 $\Pi i = Tib.$ san, sans, bsan, cleanse. See also hsan II. 227 htham-raho; 228 brah-hraho

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gsah = Tib. sa, land. See also hsah. 276 -re-htsah-re; 333 -rkah (pp. 281, 338).

gsar = Tib. gsar, new. See also hsar. 204 -nar (p. 361).

gsas = Tib. gsas, offspring; btsa, give birth; btsas, born. See also hsas (pp. 197, n. 2, 355). 262 -pahi-hdzo-hdza (pp. 239, 283).

gsu = Tib. bsu, bsus, meet, escort. See also gsus, hsus, hsu II. 64 -prom (pp. 157, 187, 219).

gsus Aorist form of gau, q.v. See also hsus (p. 197 n. 2). 99 -slo (p. 336).

gse = Tib. gtse, htshe, btses, do mischief, injure. See also gsehe, hse I, hsehi, hsehe II (pp. 140-1, 183). 48 -hcan; 200 g-yog-hldaho; 205 -re; 238, 243 -hbo-bon/bbon; 240 -hlda-hlad, -hlad; 242, 244 -hlad; 247 -ston-stsar; 248 -htah, a Suffix, pp. 182-3; 249 -hso-hkon; 327 -hko-hgyan (pp. 230, 303).

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gsom I = Tib. sems, mind, spirit; bsam, thought, dec.; som-ni, doubt. See also hsam I (pp. 235, 338). 23 -sni; 89 -rgyag; 178, 179 -wa-hyo; 198 hdio %ud; 206 tshuo ośud; 275 hldanho (?) (pp. 235, 338).

II = Tib. gsum, three (?) 10 hlaho (1); 21 htsao (1); htsaho (?) (pp. 270, 306).

gsohu = gso, live, dec., q.v. 358 hrah htono (p. 261).

bsog = Tib. sog, sogs, gsog, bsog, bsag, bsags, collect, gather, dec. See also hsag, hsog. 183 -thom-thom.

hsa = gsah, land, q.v. See also hsah. 55 gmog-heeo; hså-g-yer (pp. 178, 278).

hsag, gather together. See bsog, hsog. 389 hldago.

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II? = gsan II, cleanse, q.v. 226 hyan-hraho.

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II = Tib. som, bsom, bsoms, bšam, bšams, prepare, arrange (pp. 300-1, 355), cf. hsams. 184 meo.

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hsah = gsah, land, q.v. 41 hyan--rmvio: 42 -htsah; 141 -yer; 164 -hldah, a Suffix, p. 183; 165 -gtsan, -chad; 166 -yob-hkom; 267 -hyer; 314 -hkhehe; 346 hsahh-g-yer; 378 -htsan (pp. 142, 224, 262, 277, 278, 280, 288, 313, 335).

hsar = gsar, new, q.v. 26 g-yos/ hyos-geo; 255 -stomhi (p. 357).

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hsu I = su who? 196 rmao (p. 246).

II = gsu, meet, escort, q.v. 276 -re (p. 314).

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Abbreviations: co. = country; di. = district; l. = language; m. = mountain; p. = people, tribes, &c.; q.v. = 'which see'; re. = region; ri. = river; s. = 'see'; s.a. = 'see also'; st. = 'state'; t. = 'town', 'city', &c.; w. = word(s)'.

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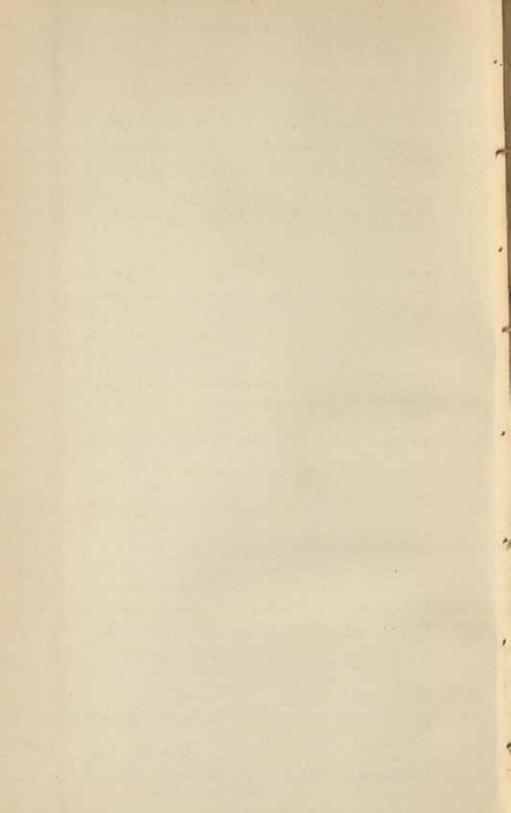
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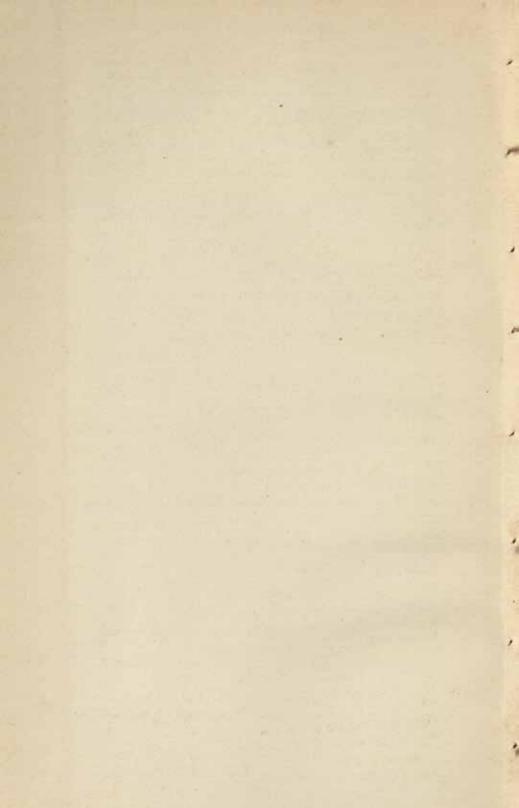
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Zun-ga, Zung-gak, Žuń-kak, Zurga, st. = Brdzun-hgag, q.v., 83, 84 n. 2. PRINTED IN
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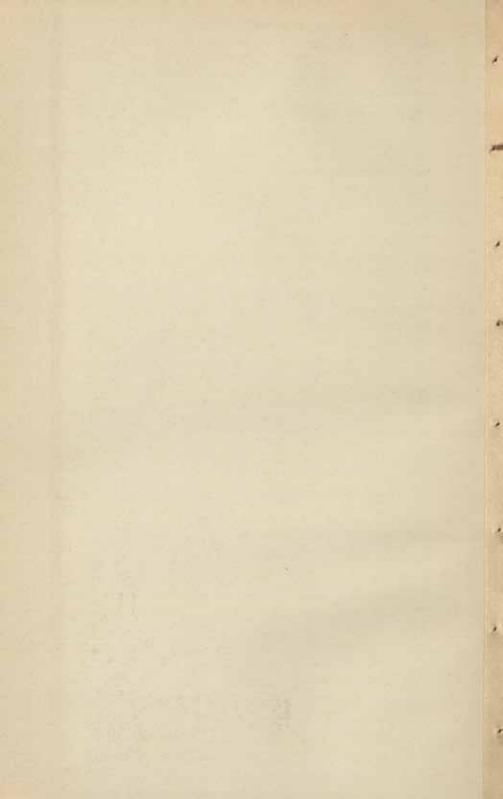




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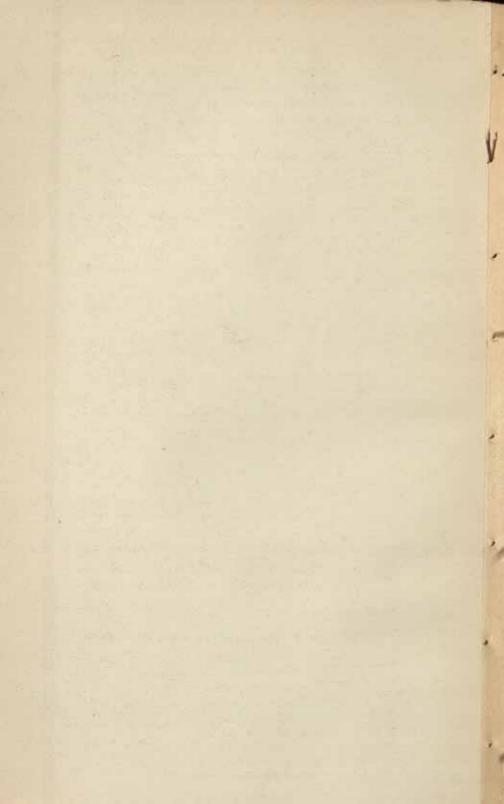
大田田道中山山山村大多田道中田屋下山東江山東西大田町日日日 85 मकायान्व देवार । मन्द्रिक्षाययान्य विकास याति । हे दाव के के के ब्ह्यावरे द्रायवराबर्कावद्रभावन्त्रा द्रायक्षावन्त्रान् Anin mining of the territorial of Brigologichia त्रतात्रकात्रताहर्मा देवात्रत्यात्र्यात्र्यात्र्यात्र्या मायवेदार्वे व्यववाति स्तिक म्यदेशावले व्यवनायक्षाति । 90 DIAMILECHANTIA DALING MET SELECTURALIA DILAMINE は、そのかかりはいかいかいかいかいのかいないというとはいうはないます 95 क्यांकायर्था के व्याप्ति हे ने विकास के त्या के त्या है। 新さいないはままられているのではないようないでき ははまりはかいか क्रामा मान्या मानवता वह नावक्वा । द्राव म्याव व्या सम्मुमा मानव। गर्कामहत्तावहरा देवम् विभावति। हावमा तववावाविम्यानम Tarking Colombia Solatilla pulation de la primi 100 and the constitution and and and sugar 283) Acres 2015 1/4 18 Ch and State 2 11904 121 55 14 अन्तिकार में में के प्राप्ति प्रमें प्रची न ने त्रां प्रची प्रमें प्रचा में में प्रचा है। Minute Dring Transmin Sung Bridge Tandidos 105 105 अ। क्रेमान वर्षेत्र तामा स्थानित क्रिया שורועלו בלא על בי מונות יון בי מועריע ברועצעו בייון नव्द त नक्तिवा महत्व कात्राह देवले तर्त वा कातर व न में के के में हैं तर्का मिल का मार्ग के महावह के निवर के Solo de la Contrata d 110 110 किर्मान्ति के मार्ग क वर्षात्मे र प्रमुक्त मार्थन वर्षाया प्रमुक्त प्रमाया मार्थन मान्त्रिता कराव में विद्यालिक कर मान्या के कार मान Translation with the property of the property of the property of प्त केरे । सिर्दालक तम् भावती विकास विधान वार्षे से स्मानिक 115 तरमात्मका ने खड़ाहात मार्थ करता हात देश विका द्वारित उपाय नेमानायकात्रमान्यात्रमान्यात्रमान्यात्रमान्यात्रमान्यात्रमान्यात्रमान्यात्रमान्यात्रमान्यात्रमान्यात्रमान्यात् digding in afford to the land to the desire निर्मा तर्वात्र त्रात्र व्यापात के कार्यात है। वर्षे विष्याति पश्चारमा के भाडा प्रदेश में मायह गाय देश प्रमाय माह बहुराय देश 120 120 現在のかいはまかる本のはないだりはままりはまかいはまかっている मामिकार्मित्रिक्ति विकास मामिकार्मित्र के क्राप्ति द्रायम् Signing 214 ms 31 y aderde as and aderate and stan doud no day.



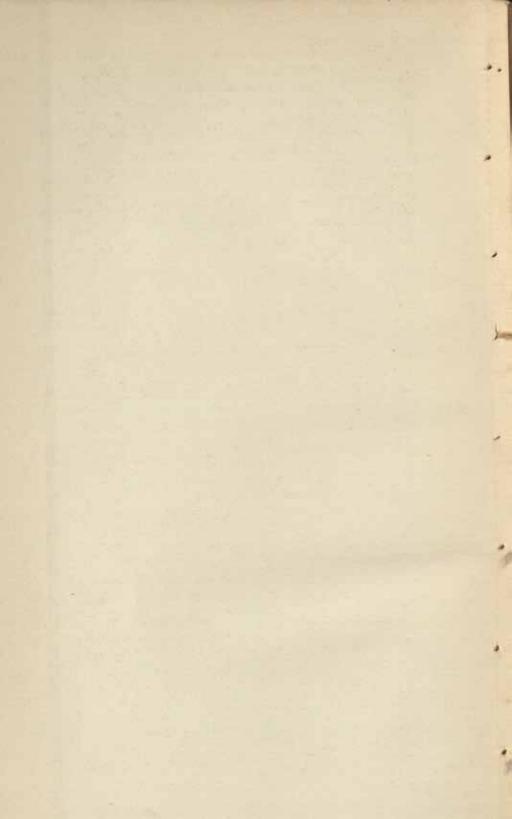
and internal state of the internal autoration of the attract under derugit is de Hunger aufrite in gift 125 dozenia idole se this seconde dole de dest de to a tour de la comera e de sua proprieta force a de que वक्षातिक स्तितिक विकास । विकास का कार्य के के किए के माना में त्रामा में हिल्ला में में माना माना में माना में माना में म्ात्रेश्वाकिव्दि प्लेश्व प्रमाय प्रतिमा विश्वतिविव्यात्रिका मुक्ति 130 130 מחשומה מ מפני על בזומים ומים מיות בניצום ביי त्याना विकास के विकास मान्या मान्या मान्या के विकास के वि वरा सामान मार्था वर्षाव द्रायम् वर्षावर्षा विकासकर् मारा में त्रांत कार माम्यावाना वात है। हर देश माहित हरते हैं। त्र त्राचे त्राचे त्राताता त्राता त्राता त्राता व्यवस्था हिंगार्थय । as find sugar de वर्ति प्रमेट के हर्या में का में का प्रमेश वर्ष है वर्ष है है। 140 MALLIEN ABLIG E AMENCE ENTERE SE MOYENES THE Da ataling Billing a saling los de digalor वक्रातंत्रवातंत्राहर्वात्तंत्रातंत्रातंत्रातंत्रातंत्रातंत्रातंत्रातंत्रातंत्रातंत्रातंत्रातंत्रातंत्रातंत्रातं Jidal dujaniniasoni decidianyazerseldeili をはたしてのからからましてまっているにあるますなるのでは、またっ केलद्रशक्तिका ने केल्याकाते केल्या बदला दिवाने के देश न तर व विष्या में त्रामक देशक में के में 150 विकास के विकास के कि कि कि कि कि के कि के कि के कि कि 150 कुराने में राजा लेड़ी किंद्रात में देने कार तर में के देने में किंद्रा के लेक वनवानमारे मुलवनावरूप क्रिकेट कार्य के किए मान प्रतिष्टिक के के प्रतिक विकास के विकास मिला है कि विकास म Find & Proposition & White the Party of the Party 155 SE STREET THE STREET ST 155 अर्थित स्मार । त्वताय । त्र मार्थ मार्थ न्या के न्या वर्षा मार्थ म अम्म क्रिकेम के त्वार मिल्या। अटले मेरा मा कुरार्क के 100 different the state of the stat का रहात्यान । वर्ष न्येत्वा वह त्रेत्र में तर्का वर्ष वर्षा वर्षा वर्षा שונים שו משום וומצימו של מומצים וומציו מיום ועלו ועלים ביו



- und as the whole सर्वात स्थापक एन सिकार्य हात्येत्र स्था है। यह दूर प्रदेशन वर्ष्य करत क 165 मारायम् स्मान्यते। तमवामा वस्तार वस्तार वस्तार वहता वहता द्वार द्वार मान 165 मध्याद्रास्य तर्रात्यति व्यवायय वरेते ।तर्रायायवानिका नेतर्रे त्मत् वर्षाम् । वर्षाम् वर्षाम मक्त्रमायाम् म्रिक कार्याविकाल विकास मार्थित मार्थित । 170 170 प्रमाम् राम् देशम् विवादारास्त्रत्मात्र्यात्र्यात्र्यात्र्यात्र्यात्र्यात्र्यात्र्यात्र्यात्र्यात्र्यात्र्यात् मत्त्रम्त्रिमात्रवान सिवाय में विद्रायह यदेश प्रच्या में में मा तम्ति समामहान हरारायरात्राय त्या हरार्थिया द्वारा मार्थिया हरा क्रान्तिमा कार्या के विक्रां के व 175 वापरेयानीय वेर्यानीयि क्रियाम् मार्टिया प्रत्ये प्रति प्रति विद्या ना नहा ना माने हाता माने हे के माने हाता माने हैं के माने हैं מותוברוומושבות שנות אומוש בווחת בבו שות אם בוו दानमान्त्र महाहास्त्रम्मा ह न्या त्रुट नियम् אותאלוס מאוווו שפועצוו בישות של אוש אוני מין עוים 180 THAT I ANCIE THE MENT OF HEAD IN THE PROPERTY OF मान प्रतिभार्ति वाराम् सिन्ते प्रतिन विकासिन निवर्षिति । पर्या प्राथमा के परारे मा किस्या हमाहन हमा मापता माना प्रमायमात्रका द्रायमान्यायमाना तर्मामान द्रायमाना म आत्यतात मान्यात्रिका कर्मा क्रिया है का कर मान्या मान्या मान्या मान्या मान्या मान्या मान्या मान्या मान्या मान्य 185 माम वेपाय हिला के प्रमुख्या है।। विकेट कर कि के मिल प्रमुख्य कर्ता के तहते हैं विके the state of the party of the state of the s द्या । एकेमार्थेन प्रदेश हार प्रतास हात प्रतास करा है उन प्रतान それにはないませんにはいないはいないはをはないない हरायका प्रवास प्राम्या के प्रति । हराय प्राम्या के विकास 190 हमानेताय मध्ये निर्वायक्षेत्रायक्षेत्रायक्षेत्राच्या द्रायका क्षेत्राच्या Bridge And Quantagen 184 X WI wording of JIRUSE त्रतात्वा सन्ते व्यक्तिवावव्या विद्वा कार्यक्षात्रम् न्याव्य म्मिल्या हार्या ने विकास मिल्या मिल्य स्मासित्यरेया द्रियका के भे प्रांत्र के स्मान में द्रियतियम्। में बहुत 195 प्ति मार्था विकाल मार्था मार्थ म स्टाटान केर्रा ति कटाका है आवर्ति स्टार्थन के विकास स्टार्व में न जिल्लाक में भारत है। यह दिए के विकाय में में में के विकाय में 200 श्रादान के विश्व । क्या वर्ष वर्ष वर्ष वर्ष के विश्व के वर्ष वर्ष के वर्ष वर्ष के वर्ष वर्ष के वर्ष के वर्ष के म्पर्वात्रमात्र मेराक्ष्य रेपार्वेडमान्य श्राम् प्रमाम्पर्वे हेरायत वर्णात्राति विवासिकात्र प्रतिविधान्त्राचे अत्यक्ष्यात्र स्वति हार्च सकता ने का उद्याद्वाम् विका विद्यानिका



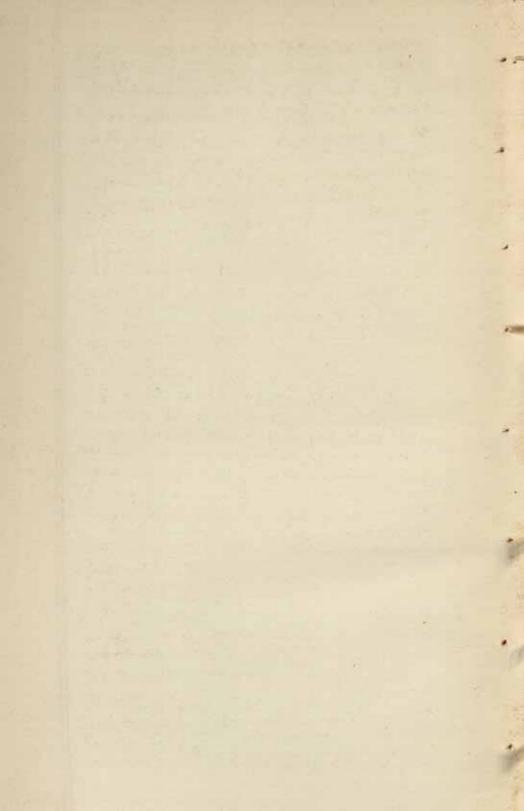
२०० ल धताकुर्णात्वता स्वामाद्रेशत्या कुरावर्ट्य प्रदान्येना बावर्षात्रेमा あられていまではないとはありまるいとからずはまる 205 व्यापातिक विश्व 210 वर्षात्रा मन्त्र तिवद्य क्षात्रे विवाद्यात्रात्या विवाद्यात्रात्या वर्षात्रका । व मार्गिक विद्यामार्थक विद्यान 210 WE'NE THE MENT OF THE PRINTERS OF THE BENEFIT OF TH क्यानीवर्षावर्षावर्मावकाराइमान्त्रात्रात्रात्रात्रात्रात्रात्र मानामान व्यक्तावर्षायक्ष्यायक्ष्यायक्ष्यायक्ष्यायक्ष्यायक्ष्यायक्ष्यायक्ष्य 215 त्रवातमात्रकृतात्र दात्रवात्रात्रीत्रीरेत्रात्रात्रीत्रात्रीत्रात्रीत्रात्रीत्रात्रीत्रात्रीत्रात्रीत्रात्रीत् 215 प्तितावतीव व त्रावका के विश्व में प्रावका के विश्व में प्रावका के विश्व में प्रावका के विश्व में प्रावका के विश्व में महीतहरायहरायहरायहरायहरायहरायहरायहरायहरा USTURAL ENTRINE STATE BEAUTINES TECHNOLOGICAL STREET BUT STATE OF THE STREET STREET 220 तमानवादात स्थान अवातकद्वाः । वद्वां भूग्याका दे । वद्वां व प्रविवास मित्यं प्राप्ति । अविवास मित्यं मित्र देशा प्रदेशम् 225 חשות בנות בנות חיוול חומה וו משכות בלות ביצל ותחבות אין שיום שוצוונים בביות שרונינים ועטות וותפיחובעוט מרוקוו שב עמה い、かかいはそうはありますは名はかいしつかり、まなはないのかいずれる」 MACINATIONING SERVICE THE REPERSON BIODINANCIA 230 मान्यातामाने निवा विकार के निवा 230 a FIC 17 FIRST HE DONNE THE PROPERTY IN THE WALLE BELLE BET त्रे कुर्ण व्यापन न्यायराय्येष व्यवनार् विष्णा विष्णा विष Maint designation in the diation in the age a trupping of a trupping of age and age and age and महित्र वितान वतात पति वितान क्रिया है वितान वितान कर कर कि वितान वितान कर 235 235 wings todium galyaquan dergral Burgunland ant Private A adres of indicate in grand and ders in graphy orthogon म्मायम्बर्द्धाक्षेत्रवाक्षात्रवाक्षत्रवाक्षत्रवाक्षत्रवाक्षत्रवाक्षत्रवाक्षत्रवाक्षत्रवाक्षत्रवाक्षत्रवाक्षत्रव 240 De 18 3 ad 18 21 a pris will gar to ga mengar up que म्बरायकार्याम् म्याया मान्या वर्षात्राम् वर्षात्राम् वर्षात्राम् ושאואומוש ומשמומים ומ מכוש ומשומטווששואותאומו 245 म्यानिया विकासिया मित्रा मित्रा मित्रा मित्रा क्षा मित्रा कर्या मित्रा म 245 MEETER HATTING TO THOUGHING ANTINEED



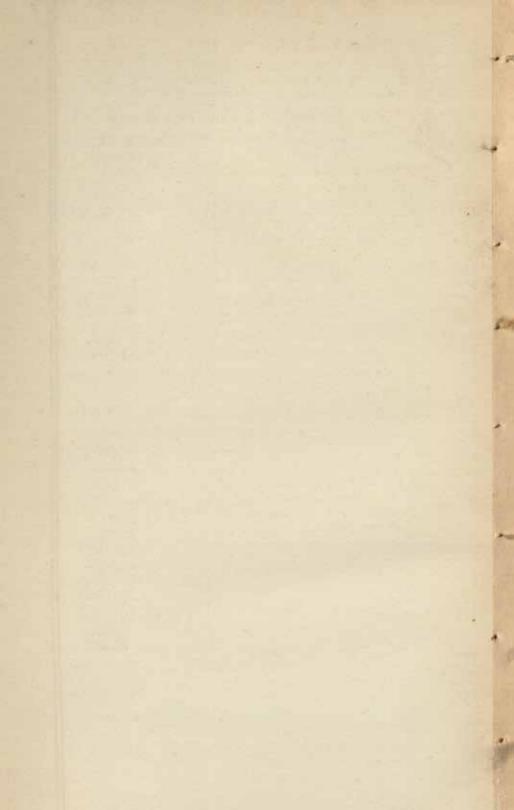
प्रकृतिका प्रवास्त्रात्रकारात्राकार्यात्रात्रात्र्वात्र्वात्र्वात्र न्त्र मार्ग्याकात्रकात्रमात्र्यात्रमात्र्या स्था में व वनावर्ष्या केवावका वाल्यान्त्रात्म्ये १००१।वडादे व्लव्याने विद्यात्रे वात्रात्रे महामायकार्याम् विकार महामायकार्याम् विकार महामायकार्याम् まいかいのはいるが、ままれているではいることのにというにきいるはは MIND AND TENNION THE STATE OF THE BUNGE IN STATE OF THE S द्रीयलेटाते व्यववद्रावस्थायहरायक्षात्रीयात्वर्षात्रमायद्रण द्रावरा 255 केल बार भूका मुका मुका ते का देश कर महत्त्व के ते हैं। ते हैं। ते हैं। ते हुता वर्षा कर था र्वे अपार्व में । अभाव ने ता मान ता ने मान त्रा मान ते मान प्रमान ति ने मान प्रमान प्रमान ति ने मान प्रमान ति ने मान प्रमान ति ने मान प्रमान ति ने मान प्रमान त THE THE PRINTED STATES TO SOUTH STATES TO STATES TO STATES मेराहाप्तेमानुबाव मेरा । प्रतिय रताह प्रापराह्म । के । कर्मात्वातातात्वस्यात्वस्यात्वस्यात्वस्यात्वस्यात्रस्यात्रस्यात्रस्यात्वस्यात्वस्यात्वस्यात्वस्यात्वस्यात्वस्य משפום שמשובועות בומבחרום ושיום שעוו שבבומט UNIDER THERE ENIGHT JEHOUS CONTO addition in a service in the interior पर्टाप्तामानीयवेश पर्वपासी के प्राचित्र ने स्वित्र हित्रका वर्षायवयाम् भावका व्यक्तिक्षित्वतावर्षात्वतावर्षात्व 270 Dayla runa true land sugar en la me la marcia חפנות בה וחבו שות בחוב בשוב והפתוחות והו אופה यक्षायहा म्यान्यावन्यात्रे विकामित्राहरात्या प्रमेश माला प्राप्त के मिरायर कारीया वर दे प्रमुखे 275 280 यक्ता कर प्राचित्रक कुर्मा प्रत्यक के प्रदाल के प्रवास के प्राचित्रक के प्रति के प्रति के प्रति के प्रति के प्रवास के प्रति के प 285 प्रका कर्मा कार्या कर्मिया में किया में किया में किया में किया as distillation interestinancia de les 285 त्यांत्रभावात्त्र विकार्ति मुक्तात्र मान्यात्र विवादितात् adiamus Esigating agent igualines משות של וחפר ומשבי מת קופצות משיומצ הוממניות באותם 290 प्रमान हे प्रकृत मान्य देव देव । विकास का मान का है त कुर । विकास के । विकास कर । विकास 290 それをはっているいかいと



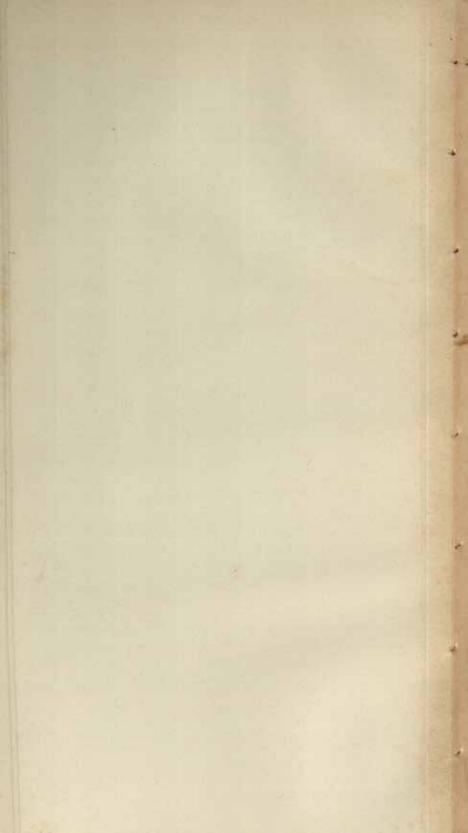
वसराक्र्रायक्ष्मित्रवाने वात्रवाने वात्रवाने वात्रवाने वात्रवाने वात्रवाने वात्रवानिया हात में पत्र काष्ट्राय हैना हि व्यवकाय के वर्षेत्र के वर्षेत्र विकासीय कर वर्षात्र महावहमात्र हर्षात्र हर्षात्र । वहरत्य प्रतान वहमाने वहमाने वहमाने वहमाने 295 व युवल शतिकार मान कुला दिल मान विकास के व दान मान मान के व देश है जहा aggling iginadura hagia der diadura diagram diangram dia 295 हाव में प्रवृत्ता में या वर्षेत्रा वर्षेत्रा वर्षेत्रा वर्षेत्रा वर्षेत्रा वर्षेत्र वर्षेत्र वर्षेत्र वर्षेत्र Priguality and still the still the still s 300 300 वर्तानद्वान्मान्देराव्यानद्वात्र्वात्रात्रात्रात्रात्रात्यात्यात्यात् प्राण्याम् माना द्वार की पर्याद्वार दे । वाय है वाय है माना वर्ष aderinealustille industriane in de interioriste यानायकारायकार्य श्रेका वर्षायकाए नायका मात्र मात्र मात्र का नायकार में म्म्रेलायर्म्य केवाम् त्याचित्र केवान्य प्रमान कराय ने । प्रमान 305 305 מבותשכות ות ביות ובצי ותבנים ובמתות ותבני שות ביום ומשתות ומנים ו यहरात्रायकात्र्यात्रात्र्वात्रात्र्वात्र्यात्र्यक्ष्यात्र्यक्ष्यात्र्यक्ष्यात्र् からかっていることはないないないないないないないできないない מתנהם ביום מומשלנו מצבול ומתשומו בימלון בימעמום צבו 310 משני שונה וותנות וות ומושו שוו שוו שוו שוו וות וות וות וות בוו मार्मिना के मान्या मान् क्रमाना कराय में वार्क नायक नायक नायक मान कराय में विश्व में חבותבשותבותה בשומוחבתותיו שלא ווקוותבותננו HAMILY WERING THE CIGANUE BY MINGHOUSE MEIGHAN 315 ustrudiging Bary Say ranery dery dery durate when the सर्वात्रावहुसात्रह्मात्र्राह्मात्र्रात्र्यात्र्यात्र्यात्र्यात्र्यात्र्या वलप्तिताक्षराम् त्राम् वर्षायक्षराम् वर्षायक्षराम् साम्हतान् क्षित्र मान्या मान्या है। । वह विकास मान्या कुराम्ने मार्थित के कार्या महार मार्थित के मार्थित में कार्य में 320 320 मेरायहा प्रमाण प्रमाण प्राम मेराय मेराय है व मेराय माति प्रमाण Exigating diapolating out a fine for a figiglia dia 4 Mary 2017 14 9 Pur Jang 14 Barg 3 dry 3 15 10 mai durad dintinution of property of the butter of 325 325 प्रत्याप्तायाम् राम्भायत् भायत् भायत् भायत् वात्रायत् वात्रायत् मेलिमान मित्र केर्ना के मेलिक केरिया में मित्र केरिया मित्र केरिया में मित्र केरिया मि त्रियाप भेना। केल वेद्राय भेरा प्रमाय में प्रमाय है मानाय हमाय त्या भेरा



त्राप त्राक्षा वेशाक्षा विकास के विकास ושאימתון וששיוש אבי עדרי בושעועלעועלאועלאים ועצוימה वस्ताहेल हैं। बने का ने ने बर की हैं। में हा में हा में हा ने भा ने के बहे हैं। 330 330 वन्नावर्षेत्र के हित्ति। के दिल वहा वहा वर्षात्र प्रवास दिल वहान देश मेलायम् गावर्षायम् व मान्यायम् वात्रायम् वात्रायम् पतियत्तात्त्राय्त्रायम् त्यम् । यम्गानम् मार्थायम् । おかいはないはまかけれていれないはまり、まかいかからまにはると「新るの 335 अध्यात्रीत मान्या है ते ता है विकास मान्या है ता है ता है ता है ता है तो है। है। है। 335 म्राय नेपार्ट्न ।य देवाय देवाय मेरा व मेरावार्कता है । य देवा कर्तिहै मार्थिता विश्व महितास्तात्रे । वर्षे केराय में नियं के माय है माय अराय है माय केराय में दे माय में मा 340 नेपर्तेशायर्थेरायकेर साय भरा हैरायर प्रिये राक्षेत्र ने स्वार्थ परिवा 340 है। के अराव है। वह ति है। के विकास के किया है। के किया के किया है। विकास के किया है। विकास के किया है। विकास के के दाय निष्में भी विष्टाव दा वहार क्रिया क्रिया करा मिन्ने का मेंदा はないかはないはましまいまくかいはあいはまだいはあいるという 345 माल्याका क्रिया हात्मा निर्मा निर्मा मान्या माना महानिर्मा मान्या निर्मा द्रायह्मार्अपार्षायक्षायक्षा अत्यक्ष्यायहार्षायह्यायहार्थायहारा वितार परेश्यत हाइत्या के विश्वास्त के विश्वास के कार्य के प्राथम विश्वास कर मेल्डियास्त्रमार्थान्यात्रमार्थात्रमार्थात्रमार्थात्रमार्थात्रमार्थात्रमार्थात्रमार्थात्रमार्थात्रमार्थात्रमा प्तिनीय ताम में नाय है। प्रमाय में प्रमाय में प्रमाय प्रमाय में 350 350 यम्प्रायहे । योष्यंतायते वस्ताय के महास्ताम्यायहतार हित्त महत्राम्मात्राकाम् ।। वाद्राम्ब्राम्याद्राम् वाद्राम्बर्मः यद्याप्रमायदेशन। वडा वराष्ट्रमायक्ष्यां प्रतायहरायमे व्यक्तिकार् 355 यतिवास्त्रीय। वहत्त्वमायक्रीहा मेश्रायहामाथक्षावमायमात्रीतायमाहा 355 מנון אות שלווטלטוס לעוע לבו של שנו אות בו שבוערו ארוענד ा । व्यापन्तिक विकास । विकास के विकास निकास । विकास विकास । विकास । वर्षेत्वम्यान्त्रेत्वाक्र्रात्राव्यात्रात्यात्रात्रात्यात्रात्यात्रात्यात्रात्यात्रात्यात्रात्यात्रात्यात्रात्या 360 मानित्रविष्ये का मेपायत्याविष्यम् विक्राम्यात्राची विष्ये केटा हिले मेर मानित्त्रिका मानित्राम् में द्वायात्राम् मानित्राम् में विद्वाराम् में विद्वाराम् 360 पहेरा निर्मितिकारित्वामित्वामित्वामित्वामित्वामित्वामित्वामित्वामित्वामित्वामित्वामित्वामित्वामित्वामित्वामित् त्मालाकुद्रात्मा अमानावक्तावम् विशवनम् त्रावन्त्रात्नेतावस्य मद्रेश देश्वीय देश विवस विभागाव क्षेत्र करें के वह देश हैं करें वा पर्वेद विवस करें



तद्भा द्वावीय देवा एक प्रमान कर्ता प्रमान करें में प्रमान हमादेवा प्रमादित कर मार् नामान्य नक्षर्ता हिल्डिने महे हराय प्रताय हराय है। 365 या । कि मान प्रवृत्त है। दि। है। । त्ये के के नाय के नाय के नाय के नाय के antiun tenthing and musing in mora of the market क्षेत्रा विश्वेत विश्वेत हित्त हरात दरात मार्थित हित सुर्व देश रेश Estacalled lay alugal signal data when the all महाराम देशिय में मार्थिया में महाराम मार्थिया में मार्थिय a failed in the three will as the in his die falle 370 क्रायम् देवहात्रात्रात्रात्रात्रात्रात्रात्रेत नात्रतावन् こうはかいいまいまいはないはないはまいますいはないはかいはられてはかい यहातिया मान्या केवासाय माने हैं विकास मान्या है। 375 मार्थाक हे सर्वायक के कि मार्थिक मायक मायहर। 375 Hand Enter the Hand Hate Tight Hander of Frage त्राकेश्वर मित्रार्थे। विस्तानिक मित्रा है मार्थिक मित्रा के मित्र का केरे नाकाल देशा के किया के लिके बार्ड नाका के कार वक्ताकुर्तान्त्राक्षाक्षाक्ष्याक्ष्यात्राक्षा 380 380 נישיון שיישיבון אומשוומנים שיוושוומנים שיישים म्नाविद्यावस्त्रात्रेशात्र्वात्रात्र्वात्रात्र्वात्र्वात्र्वात्र्वात्र्वात्र्वात्र्वात्र्वात्र्वात्र्वात्र्वात् रक्षानम् विद्वानक निकार्य निकार र न मार महारा केन के मार्थ है कि משחומשמו ומש מצדמעה ומציימפריוני ומפריי שומים 385 をかまはるとは地では日本のは、日本できていますがはないの שניופעו שוניו אותו שוניו בל וו לבי שומים בל וים בים וחבו ממו ומוצווארו פודו בוע אליושאט ועושרים בים ווון מבח עם עב 390 ת שוותחות להות בווחתו ומשכוחים אותם חותבחום ב Minder Fredericker Language of the Frederick FARING CH 395 395 Ed was



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GREAT TIBET

(WITH ADJACENT REGIONS)

FOR ORIENTATION IN CONNEXION WITH

The Nam Language

KEY

Mountain Ranges as KOKOSHILI M.

Districts as KUMAON

Boundaries indefinit

Tribal or Linguistic areas as MISHMI

Towns (often with minor state areas) as Kathmandu

Rivers as Brahmaputra r.

Lakes as Skya-rens 1.

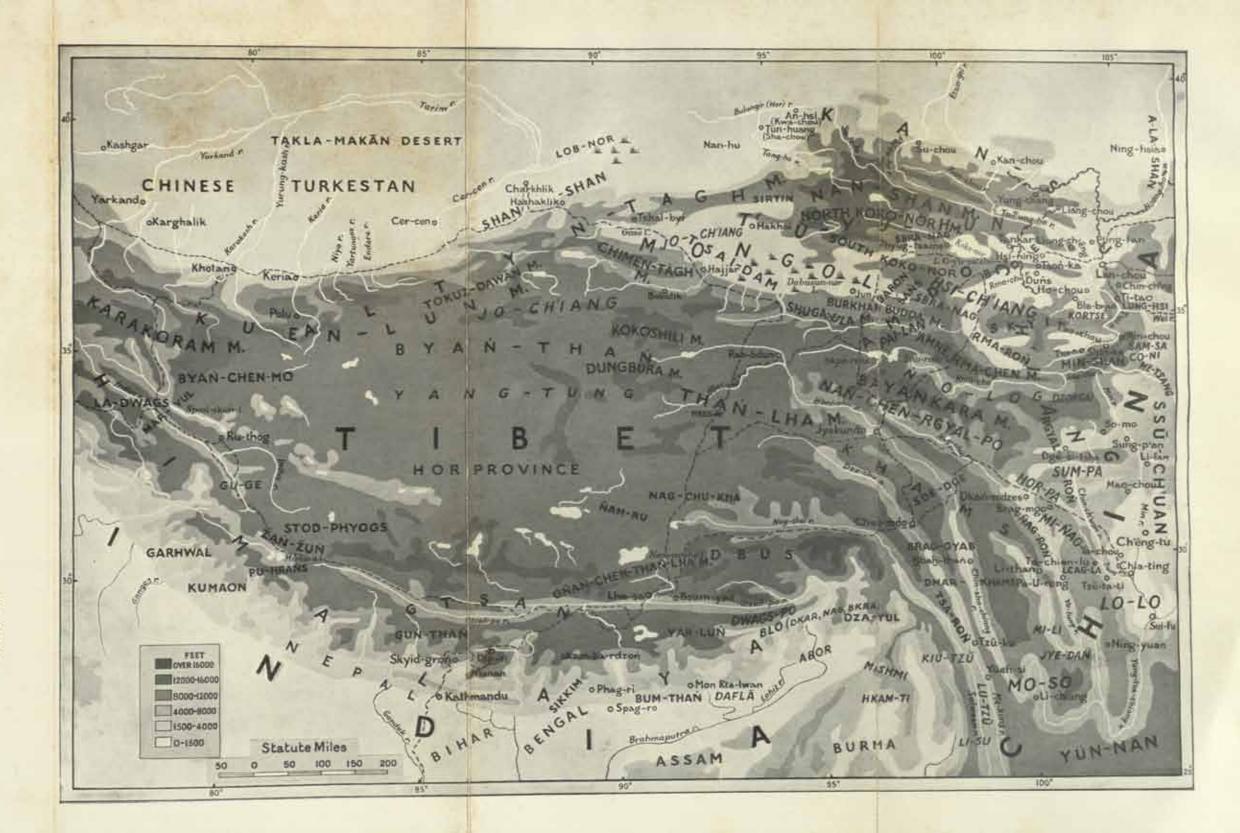
Main caravan routes as -----

Chinese frontier wall as

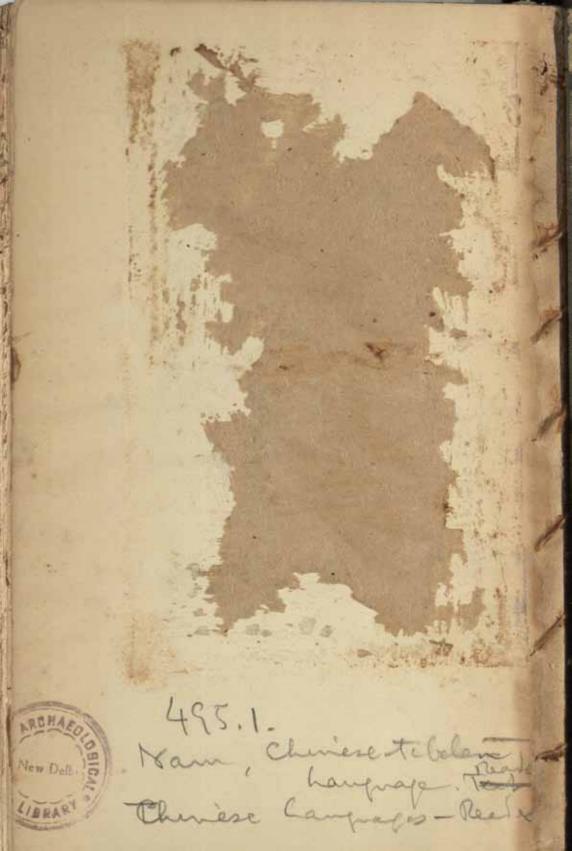
SPELLINGS

Tibetan and Chinese names in orthographic transcription, where ascertained, e.g. Bum-than (Bhutan), Dkan-mdzes (Kanzė), Hbah-than (Batang), Hbri-chu (Dre-chu), Hsining (Sining), No-log (Golok), Phag-ri (Phari), Sbra-nag (Panakha-sum), Sde-dge (Derge), Skyid-gron (Kyirong), Than-lha (Tang-la): see 'Index of Proper Names.'

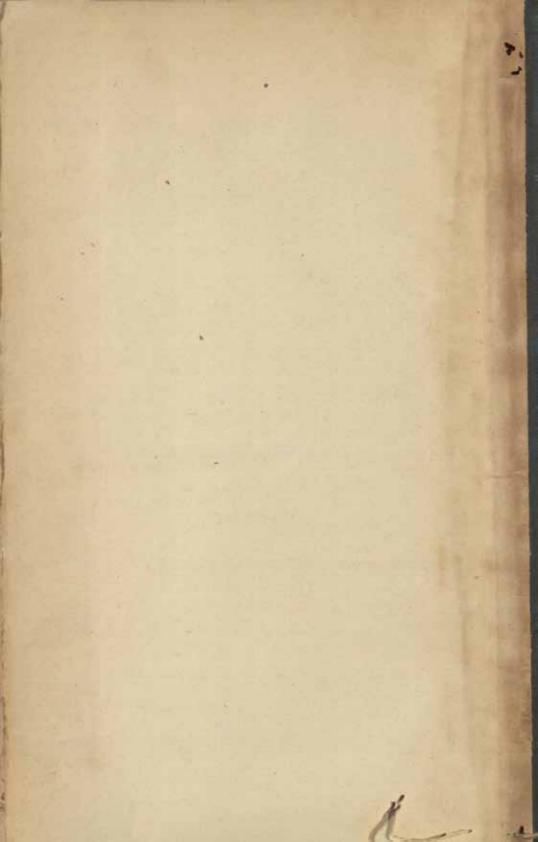
Other names as reported or usual.











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